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Continuing The Historical Outlook

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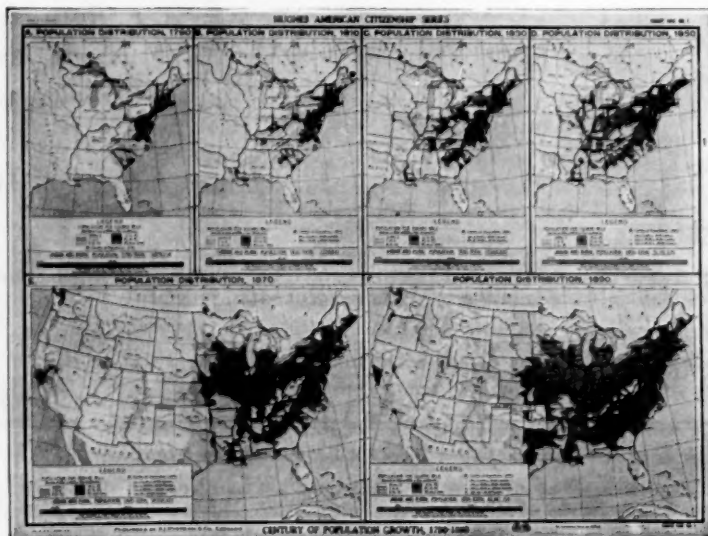
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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXIX, NUMBER 3

MARCH, 1938

Literature As the Guide to History

ABRAHAM KAUFMAN

Columbia University, New York

In his attempt to picture the past, the historian gleans from a host of sources which, with the growth of better methods of research, have been amplified in number and improved in quality. The historian resorts to state archives; he examines the buried monuments of decayed civilization; he scrutinizes the ruins of palaces and pyramids, castles and cathedrals; he deciphers the forgotten characters chiseled on stone and impressed on pottery. Then from this mass of data, he designs and constructs the edifice of the past, attempting to differentiate and determine cause and effect as he builds. But having used these relics of bygone ages, he becomes aware of the stiffness and unreality of his structure. Something is lacking. There lacks the living factor, the warmth of breathing flesh and blood creatures that have trod this earth before us, their life, their thoughts, their emotions, their struggles. And today, true history is not regarded as the narration of the vicissitudes of kings and despots, nor of the battles and cabals maneuvered by self seeking monarchs, nor of the whims of men of power that have shaken the world. These are but asides in the great drama of history. The vital plot is the vision of the past as the story of peoples in all their stratifications, as the everlasting combat of varying ideas, and as the manifestation of human behavior in its struggle against natural and spiritual enemies. When the historian treats of a single people, we want him to tell us how they lived and fared; we want to see them in their houses and palaces, salons and theatres, boulevard and slums; we want to penetrate into their hearts and learn of their passions and ambitions, their troubles and fortunes. We want to understand that part of man

which is invisible as well as that which is visible. History, as it is understood today, aims to make visible this man invisible, this man who struggles and plans, dreams and creates, schemes and builds, rejoices and grieves, fails and towers.

It is in this regard, as revealer of the past, that literature plays its potent rôle in the writing of history. Literature and life are inextricably woven together like a rich vari-colored expanse of Persian tapestry. Throughout the past, men have expressed themselves because, being alive and active, they were unable to resist the urge to expression. They have given corporeality to their thoughts and emotions because by so doing they were living—they were obeying the life impulse to create, to criticize, and to construct. As the outgrowth of the individual, as the product of human relationships and as the offspring of man's free and instinctive expression, literature becomes an interpreter of life; as the conscious or subconscious expression of a time, it becomes the revealer of that epoch. Great works of literature, like "pillars of fire in the night of time," guide the historian, not only in depicting the life of a definite period, but in helping him to discover the forces at work that decide the course of the future.

The one significant quality of great literature is that it is the creation of a master mind with colossal powers of analysis and imagination—one who embodies in himself the opinions and ideals of a considerable portion of his time. He is a super-psychologist, who, artistically carves out a window for us into the soul of his fellow men. Where the work is the product of a whole race or a people, as are myths and religious writings, it is still the genius

who cloaks with a divine beauty these creations of his race.

We shall now take a hurried glance at some of the beacon lights of world literature most familiar to us, and see how they have revealed the trend of history. Our cursory survey of the past from earliest dawn to our own day, although inevitably imperfect, will suffice to convince us that literature, the expression of man is also his interpreter.

Were it not for the myths and legends that have come down to us, sometimes distorted and warped, the story of ancient man would be a sealed book. Now, these simple tales together with the religious books have become treasures of information on primitive thought and life, and are some of the sources by which the historian can explain the birth of ideas, institutions, customs, and ceremonialisms. In these flights of fancy—as they seem to us moderns—early man was weaving for himself a self-satisfying conception of the universe. He was endeavoring to at-tune himself to the "great dreadful" powers beyond his control, by creating all sorts of fantasies capable of satisfying his passion for cosmic exposition. We see him in these myths worshipping trees and stars; we see him in his tent singing praises to his wooden gods; we see him in holy places chanting weird songs and uttering mysterious supplications. We see him reverencing the patriarch of his tribe; we see him shouting his assent and murmuring his dissent in the open-air meetings of his clan.

These early myths are in the main identical with the religious writings. The child-mind of man created them both and was unable to differentiate one from the other. Such literary remains as we do have acquaint us particularly with the religious gropings of early man. In the fragments of the *Avesta*, the sacred books of the Zoroastrians composed about 1000 B.C., we are brought in contact with a philosophy of life that conceives the human soul as the prize for which two powers are forever contending—the powers of good and evil, light and darkness, Ormuzd and Ahriman. The yellowed papyri of the *Book of the Dead* recreate for us the Egyptian soul after the Age of the Pyramids. This collection of magic charms and prayers to Osiris, the sun-god, and the Nile-god, gives us a glimpse into a time when people already believed in a day of judgment and the resurrection of the soul. From the *Eddas*, the Icelandic book of faith, we learn of a land of roving seamen, who speak of death as a "return home" and of heaven as Valhalla or "hall of the elect." In this "hall of the elect," their gods were supposed to have dwelt not unlike the Greek gods on Mount Olympus whom Homer speaks of in his *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. Behind the ruggedness and brutality of their Sagas, we can trace the early history of northern Pagan Vikings madly fighting for freedom and plunder.

In their blood-curdling folk-tales, we are initiated into their tribal life, and get a vivid picture of how their elders dispensed justice, how they conducted their ungodly methods of trial, and how they were rent and bled by incessant feuds.

But to return to the Greeks and the great nations that have given the world its great ideas. Here in Greece a courageous people had settled, who were awed and inspired by the grim boulders and bare mountains that jut menacingly into a cloudless sky which brightened the not too fertile valleys beneath. It was here that the blind, itinerant Homer is said to have sung his lyrics about Achilles and Ulysses, Helen and Penelope, of the fall of Troy and the return of one of the mortal survivors. Fortunately, neither historian nor literary critic question the merits of the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, the historian admitting their charm as examples of imperishable art, and the literary critic valuing them as indispensable mirrors of Greek manners and thought at the dawn of its civilization. In these epics which today, after twenty-eight centuries, are still read with delight, we see the rays of human enlightenment becoming brighter; we feel the serenity of human emotion as it naïvely conceives the mysteries of life; we see their man-like gods intriguing and loving and hating, and in their imaginary splendor, lording from Mount Olympus over the destinies of men. Greece, we also learn, was then under a hereditary king, who was military commander, high priest, and judge, all in one. It was a civilization where slavery flourished, but where the voice of democracy began to make itself heard in the shouts of the populace at the tribal assemblies.

Another people who have given the world great ideas and whose deeds are recorded in literature are the Hebrews. The *Old Testament*, besides being a "thing of beauty" and an idealistic *vade mecum* of life, is also the story of an oriental people struggling for truth and justice and for the unmolested worship of one God. In the Books of Moses, the Book of Judges, and the Prophetic writings, the history of this unfortunate people is outlined, even from creation. The historian is able to learn their tribal organization, their laws, their customs of praying and eating and working, and also their peculiar racial traits. He learns of their fluctuations in worship, their wanderings and persecutions, their sieges and defeats. He hears Moses pleading before the obdurate Pharaoh; he hears the envious Korach complaining of the power of the great leader; he hears the clash of armor and the din of battering rams at the fall of Jericho; he hears Isaiah hoping for the time when men will "beat their swords into ploughshares"; he hears a note of melancholy and defeat sobering the days of the prophets.

The Gospels present another vital idea that has

cardinally altered the course of civilization. The *New Testament* became the book of ultimate authority to the Christian world for many centuries. Here the historian can read of the birth of Christianity, of the personality of its founder, of its early interpretations; at the same time he is able to form a picture of the degenerate period in which early Christianity thrived and of the country which it was destined to fire with a loftier vision. The historian gets a living description of the multitudes that followed Jesus, the sentiment of the people, the struggles of the Apostles, and the rise of the Church amidst the universal upheaval.

These immortal books, here merely hinted at, typify great ideas—turning points in the progress of the world. Added to them may be the *Analekts* of Confucius, the *Mahabharata* and the *Ramayana* of ancient Hindustan, and the *Koran* of Mohammed. We may regard these writings as torches in the path of history, for they open up for us wide vistas of the past.

The bases of modern Occidental civilization are the cultures of Greece, Rome, and of the Christian world. To view the literature of these three vital components of occidentalism would be a long step in comprehending the titanic conflicts and strifes out of which our own civilization was born.

In speaking of Greece, we have already alluded to Homer who, as poet and historian, is still cherished by moderns. A century after Homer, the peasant poet Hesiod in his *Works and Days* violently protests against the oppression at the hands of the nobles. This sign of revolt ushers us into the Golden Age of Greece where democracy advanced, indeed slightly, or not at all, from our point of view, but very materially from the Greek viewpoint which demanded the right of suffrage for all free citizens. Pericles was at the helm of government. Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides were the literary jewels that crowned the age. Aeschylus, of great religious depth and intense patriotism to the state, plaintively bewailing the growing questioning of the gods; Sophocles, of exquisite charm and harmony of soul, shrouded by the tragic Greek idea of the fury of fate; Euripides, of doubting temperament and of tumultuous spiritual nature, championing the sophists in their impious skepticism—these three super-artists of different schools, so to speak, see their society from as many points of view and enlighten the historian not only as to the increased tendency to religious division, but also as to the position of the multitude in that struggle. And again in Aristophanes, of the same period, we find the conservative satirist, the mocker against the new sophistic teachings whose comedies, full of licentious humor, faithfully depict the degrading tendencies of the time.

The next great effusion of the Greek genius was led

by Plato and Aristotle whose works are brilliant compendiums of Greek thought and reflect the struggle that was then taking place between mysticism and science. Philip, the strong imperialist of Macedon had succeeded to the mastership of the Greek city states, but he was assassinated and his learned and dauntless son Alexander succeeded to the hegemony of the Hellenic municipalities. His prime program was to spread the Greek ideals of beauty and perfection throughout the then known world. His armies penetrated into Egypt, Phoenicia, and India carrying everywhere the banner of Hellenism. The death of the great Alexander did not terminate his grand program of Hellenizing the world. The walls of Greek's isolated splendor were broken; a cosmopolitan spirit and a materialistic trend permeated the period which produced the "brotherhood of man" philosophy of the Stoics, the "pleasure" philosophy of the Epicureans, and a general skepticism in all walks of life.

In the meantime Rome was ascending to power. The grim hardy Romans, not much given to literary art, had already woven their legends and developed a high sense of morality. Rome aspired to the mastership of the world, but in this lay the germ of her fall. Her early writers were neither numerous nor great. We may then pass to her two perfect prose stylists living in the first century B.C., Cicero and Caesar. From Cicero, we get, among other things, a view of the then growing degeneracy of Roman society, the excesses of the wealthy, the corruption and political intrigues of the time. Caesar's *Commentaries* vivifies for us the barbaric races north of the Roman boundary, and reveals the might and strategy of Roman arms in subduing them. At this time Lucretius deserts the traditional gods in his *De Rerum Naturae*, whereas shortly after Horace in his satires ridicules the vices about him and urges a return to the old gods. The immortal Vergil now steps upon the scene. His epics ring with the belief in the exalted mission of Rome to conquer and cosmopolitanize and give peace to the world.

Then came the slow and certain decay of this leviathan empire that extended from India to the Atlantic and from Sahara to the Danube. Rome was dying and such men as Petronius, Tacitus, Pliny the Younger and many others tell us of its death pangs. It was a time of titanic religious and social ferment. It was then that Petronius wrote: "Our country is so peopled with divinities that you can find a god more easily than a man." However, offset against the increasing depravity of the age was the uplifting spirit of the Nazarene and the cry among the more high-minded pagans themselves for a revision of their faith. Seneca, Marcus Aurelius, and Epictetus were among the foremost in opposing the old paganism. In the writings of the Apostles and the Holy Fathers, the Christian teachings were becoming more defined

and their conflict with paganism ever more acute.

For almost five centuries a severe polemical war was waged between the Christian teachings and the new paganism. The situation became more and more tense. Some deserted their homes to find salvation in the desert; others struggled within themselves for spiritual consolation. Christians were persecuted because of their refusal to worship the Emperor. Three centuries passed and in 325 A.D. Constantine declared Christianity a state religion. But the struggle continued.

Meanwhile the barbarous Teutons were filtering into the empire. In 410 A.D. the Visigoths, a German tribe under Alaric sacked Rome, and a pall of despair fell over all the people. The Romans blamed the Christians for this catastrophe and rued their departure from the old gods. The Christians found a champion in St. Augustine who hurled a bolt into the ranks of these "laudatores temporis acti" in the form of his *City of God*. In it he reminded the wavering Romans of the impotence of their gods on former occasions and consoled them with the promise that on the ruins of material Rome was to arise a truly Eternal City, the City of Faith, the Christian Church. Augustine's book marked the climax of the contest between these two life views, but the fight went on, albeit with ever decreasing vigor, until in the end Christianity definitely triumphed.

This kaleidoscopic view of the ancient world is remarkably secured from its literature. The little we know of the next ten centuries is also to a large extent gleaned from literary sources.

The ten centuries following the collapse of Rome and its surrender to the unlettered pagan Teutons was a period of strife, confusion, fancy and mysticism. The first five centuries were well nigh barren of cultural fruits. Hordes of invaders from the East, North, and the South—German and Slav, Norman and Saracen, were inundating the West and demolishing and plundering in their path. From Tacitus and Caesar, and from *Beowulf* and the *Nibelungenlied*, we get clear pictures of these barbarians, stubborn and grim, hateful and devoted, with their thirst for fighting and spoil.

In these five centuries Europe was absorbing her conquerors. Shimmering lights of culture could be perceived here and there but these were few amidst the general darkness. Nothing spectacular was achieved. In the cloisters of their monasteries, men who had forsaken the world were copying old manuscripts and were preserving for the world the glories of Greece and Rome. The weak flocked to the strong, and the strong to the stronger, and the institution of feudalism was born. In the ninth and tenth centuries, the Church was mustering its forces for a death grapple with the State. Knowledge in these

restless and dark hours of human history assumed the garb of erudition, rather than creative thought. Geniuses then were compilers and textbook writers who mirrored the sad intellectual plight then existent.

The five remaining centuries were far more pregnant with literary and philosophical vivacity. It was the era of chivalry, church domination, and scholasticism. The whole medieval period was colored and dominated by the Church whose influence penetrated into every nook and cranny of medieval life. All Europe was being melted in the crucible of churchdom. Nations were in the process of forming from the ruins of feudalism. The crusades and the severe struggles between popes and emperors were further militating against the quiet of the times.

It was during this period that the chansons de geste, the romans, and the fabliaux were flourishing in France under the patronage of cultured nobles who encouraged the troubadours and trouvères to ply their aesthetic profession. These singers knew the life about them, being regular perambulators of their provinces. The chansons de geste and also the Arthurian tales give us noteworthy sidelights on the refined, courtly, and showy character of feudal life. In one of the chansons written during the Hundred Years War, one of these poets, Jean de Beuamanoir, waxes indignant at the devastation of his country by the lusts of the squabbling monarchs. The fabliaux of which *Reynard the Fox* is a type are pleasant satires on robber knights and perverted churchmen, then not uncommon. In the *Song of Roland* we hear the elegiac strains of chivalry, and then turning to England in the Arthurian legends, we see blessed knights in quest of the Holy Grail, and in Spain, we see the Cid leading his legions to victory as he rides dead on his majestic horse. It is from these fragments of song that we get the spirit of chivalry, just as we get the spirit of man in all times and places from his song and story.

But besides these lighter shades of medieval life, there is the more deep seated profundity of mysticism that colored in one form or another the entire social and cultural fabric. Theology was supreme. "Ars moriendi" the art of dying, then became more important than "ars vivendi," the art of living. Men were led into all fashions of hair-splitting dialectics in their vain attempt to harmonize Christianity with the logic of Aristotle. Anselm, Abelard, Albert the Great, Thomas Aquinas, Eckhart and Thomas à Kempis are first as representatives of this theological disputatiousness that was taxing the genius of medieval scholarship. How many angels could stand on the point of a needle? What is the elixir of life? What is the philosopher's stone? These were some of the more ludicrous questions which they sought to reason about. It is however in these apparently futile polemic wars that we can discern how the grip of Church

authority with its dogmatism was ultimately broken and the freedom of the human soul found an outlet in the Renaissance and the Reformation. It was also at this time that the religious, morality, and miracle plays, teaching a thousand and one morals from Scripture and dressing its characters in medieval guise, were largely in vogue.

Medievalism, as literature paints it, may well be regarded as the cocoon in which the formative modern man was closeted before he attained full growth and could emerge free and capable of relying upon his own powers instead of being glued to the wall of churchdom. It took nearly a millennium for this chrysalis to crack and for the modern soul to see the dawn in Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio. These three revivalists stand at the pinnacle of medievalism and at the base of modernism. Dante especially, in his *Divine Comedy* marks the turning point of the two eras. His immortal epic constitutes the fruition of medieval possibilities, a supreme blending of theology and beauty, which were the two vital channels that were developing in the last centuries of the Middle Ages. Just as the climax of the ancient world has been embodied in Augustine's *City of God*, so we may view Dante's *Divine Comedy*, as the very consummation of medievalism—the blossoming of the medieval ideal.

The journey of the human spirit from the dungeon of mysticism into the realm of reality lasted almost three centuries, from the fourteenth to the seventeenth. Men, long gone astray in the wilderness of scholasticism, now found themselves again. The three prime revivalists in Italy, found their successors in Chaucer and Langland in England. The *Canterbury Tales* of Chaucer present the whole galaxy of English society from bishop to miller; and in *Piers Plowman*, Langland delineates the sad peasant life then pressed by the rapacity of English landowners.

In the splendid fifteenth and early sixteenth century, the horizon of the human mind was further widened by the discoveries of new lands and the perfection of new inventions. Machiavelli was then laying the foundation of a philosophy of political absolutism in his *Prince* whose scepter was force and whose signet was benevolence. Castiglione's *Courtier* and Spenser's *Faerie Queene* gave expression to the yearning for individual perfection which was the essence of the Renaissance spirit. In Benvenuto Cellini's *Autobiography* we see how this exuberance of the new era was now given full rein in both aesthetic creativeness and in lustful madnesses after being pent up for centuries in the darkness of medievalism.

The next century, the sixteenth, witnessed a bold revolt from church authority and hoped for a determined return to reality. In 1517 Martin Luther placarded the church door at Wittenberg with the

ninety-five theses in which he questioned the doctrines of the Church, and thereby precipitated a struggle which continued well into the eighteenth century. It was in this century—the sixteenth—that Galileo was imprisoned and Giordano Bruno was burned at the stake. Francis Bacon in England in his *Novum Organum* was urging method and observation in solving the mysteries of life rather than *a priori* reasoning. His *New Atlantis*, the ideal society that he conceived, is devoted to the advancement of science and invention, the discovery of nature's secrets and their use to increase human happiness. A century before, More had written his *Utopia*, another ideal society in which he cleverly condemned English laws and government, the pomp of the rich and pauperism of the laboring masses.

The forces operating in the Elizabethan period can also be distinguished by a perusal of its literature. The incomparable Shakespeare then transported himself in immortal verse into all climes and times and illustrates to what a high degree perfection of art could then be attained. And among the works of the lesser lights that encircle Shakespeare and make the literary master more brilliant in his genius, Beaumont, Fletcher, Greene, Dekker, Jonson and others, we obtain graphic portraits of the time, of the shady side of London life, as well as of the frivolity and affectedness of Elizabeth's court.

Then came reform. A pall of otherworldliness veiled a great deal of the literature of the seventeenth century. Bunyan wrote his *Pilgrim's Progress*, Milton, his *Paradise Lost* and *Paradise Regained*, Brown, his *Religio Medici*. The Reformation came to England with force and men began more and more to penetrate their own hearts to find their God. In France, under the resplendent despotism of Louis XIV, literature gained new life. Molière, Racine, Corneille, de Sévigné, Bossuet, Descartes, and Pascal are a few of the names which stand out prominently during this "age d'or" of French letters. Molière, in his caustic, yet pleasant way, ushers before our eyes the foibles and frailties of his countrymen; the parvenu, the quack, the misanthrope, the miser; he twists and turns and mercilessly exposes them to his readers and auditors. In this age Madame de Sévigné wrote her beautiful letters; Descartes declared his "cogito, ergo sum," Bossuet eloquently sung praises to Christianity, while Pascal, despairing of reason, lost himself in a strange mysticism.

Eighteenth century England was indeed a "fen of stagnant waters." Addison, Steele, Pope, and Swift, reveal to what formalism and artificiality English society had degraded. Life became hypocritical, stereotyped and vicious, and England was bound like a Chinese woman's feet. She became a nation of shopkeepers, coffee-house frequenters, and fashionable fops. Literature came to be regarded as the plaything

of the old-fashioned; and imagination, except when hitched to the fortunes of scheming politicians, was superciliously frowned upon. It was a time when manners were more respected than mind. France herself was not unmolested by this ghoul of artificiality. Voltaire, with malicious satire mocks at the hollowness and inertia of his fellow Gallicans; Montesquieu laughs good-naturedly at the extravagance of the wealthy in manner and dress in his *Persian Letters*; Rousseau, the vitriolic iconoclast, clamors for a return to nature, the erasure of social distinctions, and the abolition of private property. His *Le Contrat Social* was a call to revolt, a breaking with a past that conspired to the glutting of the rich and the impoverishment of the poor.

The colossal wave of revolution, shaking all time-worn institutions to their very roots, swept over Europe and continued its depredations well into the nineteenth century. Modern man was then on the threshold of maturity. Again mankind was emancipated—this time from the ideas of absolutism, divine right of kings, and human slavery. It was an age when humanity, feeling itself crushed for centuries under the burdens of despotism and monotony snapped its ball and iron and asserted its freedom from the blinding traditions of the past.

After the French Revolution Wordsworth in England was calling his countrymen to the virtues of the simple life; Carlyle was preaching the cult of work; Byron, like a shooting star that blazes and falls was championing revolution and was bewailing the brutality of destiny, while Shelley, although finding solace in beauty and nature, was still glorying in the tumult of rebellion.

By this time, the novel had been perfected, and consequently the depicting of life was now easier than was possible in the drama and in poetry. In England, there were Goldsmith, Jane Austen, Dickens, George Eliot, Thackeray, and Hardy. In France there were Chateaubriand, George Sand, Hugo, Balzac, Flaubert, and Zola—the last three being the scions of French realism. In Germany Eschenbach, Heyse, Freytag, and Sudermann were outstanding; and in Russia Gogol, Pushkin, Turgenev, Tolstoi, Dostoevsky, and Maxim Gorki occupy high places among the novelists of the world. Jane Austen, with much "sense" and less "sensibility" paints a typical rural village in all its charm and rusticity. The novels of Dickens throw on a broad canvas a picture of the lower middle class and sympathetically tell us of the abuses of the workhouse and the plight of the poor in Victorian England. George Eliot skillfully describes the provincial town life of her day in *Adam Bede*, *Silas Marner*, and *Middlemarch*; and in *Felix Holt*, voices the cry of the worker in the new age of industrialism. Thackeray, the novelist of the well-to-do, opens the door for us in *Pendennis*, *The New-*

comes, and *Vanity Fair*, to the superfine gentry life of the early Victorian age. *The Human Comedy* by the French realist Balzac is a rich commentary on the bourgeois life in Louis Philippe's time when the worship of gold steeped France in pessimism. Flaubert's *Madame Bovary* and *Sentimental Education* are merciless satires on French sentimentalism that reveal the world weariness and cynicism of its author. And Emile Zola, the successor to Flaubert in realism, follows this same brutishness in exposing the foibles and crimes of society in all their deadly detail. His characters from all stations and walks of life are exhibited shorn of the cloak of convention and robe of restraint in all their weaknesses and bestialities to the scorn and disgust of the world. Zola and his apostles are indeed giving voice to the growing despair and pessimism that is today darkening the soul of France. In old Russia, a similar spirit prevailed. Dostoevsky's *Crime and Punishment*, Tolstoi's *Power of Darkness* (a drama), Turgenev's *Sketches of a Sportsman*, and Maxim Gorki's *Three of Them* speak the heart of old Russia, the Russia of serfdom and suffering, of brutality and idealism. As for our own country's literature, it is difficult to generalize about it, save that it reflects our national youthfulness, our vigour and enthusiasm, and very likely, a sort of intellectual adolescence that was not yet ripe for the deeper values of life. This generalization does not under-rate our literary achievements in the past but it does suggest the distance that we must traverse to reach greater spiritual depth.

The whole period which we have here designated as modernism may be again characterized by three elements which unquestionably run through the literature of modern times. These elements are industrialism, intellectualism, and liberty. Our age is distinguishable from all others by its steam and motor-driven machines, the theory of evolution which has now been accepted and applied by every branch of intellectual and spiritual endeavor, orthodox religion excepted, and finally by the passion for liberty and happiness among the common people. Goethe, Huxley, Darwin, Nietzsche, Spencer, Fiske, Bergson, Nordau, and Wells—men who reflect varied phases of modernism belong to no other age than ours. Again the revolt from convention continues; the humanitarian motive becomes more prominent. These two tendencies are particularly noticeable in the dramatists, Ibsen, Hauptmann, Shaw, Schnitzler, Galsworthy, Brieux, and Barker. Of course another characteristic of our modern era may be ascertained by recalling the multitudinous books on science and systematization that daily come off our very busy presses.

To bring our study down to very recent times, we can look for a moment into the immense volumes of war literature of Henri Barbusse, Blasco Ibanez,

Bernhardi, and of the hordes of correspondents and litterateurs that have flooded the world with their impressions. No historian would ever be lacking in material in writing the story of the world in its latest cataclysm.

This, briefly, is the story of that part of humanity most familiar to us as seen through the pages of literature. Today with the printing presses ever turning out propaganda, novels, newspapers, magazines, and scientific treatises of all sorts, it would not be extravagant to say that the sum total of the literature is the sum total of the historical data that is obtainable. It should also be remembered that in addition to the more objective literature discussed in this essay, there are the numerous letters, diaries, memoirs, and autobiographies of great and small that reveal personality subjectively. And then as literature helps us to read the soul of an individual, it helps us also to

read the soul of a whole nation and a whole race in the process of growth.

This is the value of literature to history. True, literature is apt to be fraught with bias, exaggeration, and subjectivity. Here the function of the historian as a discriminator and a keen judge of human nature is indispensable to sift and winnow reality from fiction. The historian ought to regard not only the works of the great which of necessity should receive priority, but also should give some of his attention to that vast majority of the "not-great" who have added the expressions of their hearts and souls to the literary treasures of the world. In truth, if the historian could construct a colossal crucible and by some magic art could melt the literary treasures of man into one condensed whole, he would create a history of man, far more fascinating and truthful than has ever been attempted.

History Does Its Bit

WAYNE ALVORD

Fremont High School, Fremont, Nebraska

History is generally conceived to be a body of subject matter. Education is usually classed as a process. To say that history is educative seems to imply a certain synonymity between the two. But it is difficult to perceive oneness in two entities falling into such different classifications as a body of subject matter and a process. The use of the term educative, however, should make clear the relationship that history is a contributor to the educational process. In this relationship, it seems to me, history deserves loud and frequent mention as one of the major items to be included in any school curriculum and certainly not to be ignored in any discussion of so-called "core" subjects.

A definition of terms might help to make clear my point. Many educators and educationists, I think, would agree to a definition of education something like this: Education is a process of vicarious reëxperiencing of what has gone before so that each generation may proceed from where the previous generation left off. This statement brings to the conception of education a sense of movement and activity, which makes it truly a process. It also gives it subject matter, purposiveness, and a more or less definite goal, plus the ethical ideal of progress. This definition does not describe education, but does put it on a working basis.

A working definition of history worked out by the

late Dr. F. M. Fling of the University of Nebraska runs as follows: "History is a vision of man's past life in society as a unique, complex, everchanging whole." Use of the word vision means realistic and dynamic history. Man's past life *in society* is the subject matter. The remainder of the definition—unique, complex, everchanging whole—is designed to demand unity, understanding, appreciation, analytical study, from the student of history rather than permitting him to be content with a robot-like memorization of a tabulation of items.

Now then, will these two definitions integrate? Is there any common ground? If they merely intersect, that is hardly enough. They must travel a way together if history is truly educative. Further examination seems to indicate a high degree of integration.

History deals with mankind's past experiences. Education is essentially a chewing of the fat, the nourishment, from mankind's past experiences preparatory to further endeavor. Through the processes of education, the person to be educated is brought into contact with the experiences and occurrences of the past, the accumulated store of which we call our body of knowledge. The idea is that each succeeding generation will not then have to start from zero, from scratch. A simple illustration will suffice. Suppose the knowledge and use of a system of writing were *not* handed on from generation to generation. Each gen-

eration would be left to work out such a thing for itself. Now it took mankind a long time and much effort to arrive at such a boon as handwriting in the first place. What chance would each and every generation have to evolve a system of writing for itself? And how would improvement and broadened use creep in if each generation was forced to rely solely upon its own efforts? It is obvious that progress even in the manual skills and basic uses of writing would even be more painfully slow than they have been. As it is, through education, whatsoever its form, each generation is handed a ready-made system of writing with all the improvements up-to-date. In a comparatively short time, the whole generation will have absorbed what took painful centuries to evolve. It can then go on from there, limited only by the limit of the possibilities inherent in a system of writing and the ultimate of human capacity. The same principles apply to any other skill or knowledge.

History and historical study then, seem essential to the educative process. History is essentially a presentation in more or less orderly and easily assimilable form of the painful and pleasant experiences of the race. It is not truly, as it was once considered to be, a process of national back-slapping and self-congratulation and blind adulation of the men and things of the past. True historical perspective demands a presentation in such a manner that the implications of those experiences may be seen and understood. It is not just "story" but "history." Something is added to the bare story. In other words, *simple annal is not history*; a dynamic, a vision is required, and that vision (or appreciation or understanding if you please) allows the extraction of nutriment for growth from those past situations, permits the judgment of what has been beneficial to society and to individuals and what has been harmful, and how we came to be the way we are. These things seem definitely educational.

Conceived in the very broadest terms then, history and education have a considerable degree of synonymy. Each is a systematic and orderly presentation of the past in order that man may see, understand and be able to move ahead.

However, it is equally obvious that there are differences between these two. Historical study deals with mathematics, not in all its byways as a special science, but with its birth, developments, and effects upon humans. Historians are interested in mathematics as one of the developments of man and because of its effects upon man. They look at it from the outside rather than from the inside. So with chemistry, physics, or any other of the branches of knowledge.

Historical study is not designed to bring knowledge of, and skill in the various branches of the arts and sciences, but to synthesize these things and their development in order that we may see from where they come and what their various effects have been. Then we can render some judgments—what shall we keep, what discard? What and how shall we change and how much shall it be changed? History is thus a coördinator, a painter of the whole picture in order that the parts may be seen in their proper relation to the whole and to each other. Certainly that is an essential function if our education is to be of any value or to achieve any success.

It can be said then that history has a very definite contribution to make to education, and that it is essentially educative in character. More concretely stated, some of these contributions are (or at least ought to be):

1. The study of history leads toward an understanding of how man has progressed in the past and so gives hints as to how progress may continue.
2. The study of history leads to an understanding of the mistakes of the past and thus makes it easier to avoid recurrence of similar mistakes.
3. The study of history clears away many misconceptions and misunderstandings by lending a more realistic touch to knowledge of the past.
4. The study of history—*real* history—develops and exercises the reasoning powers.
5. The study of history leads to awareness of social problems and to methods of finding the solutions to those problems.
6. The study of history aids in the correlation and integration of the branches of learning.

It must be realized and understood that history alone cannot make an education. Knowledge of history alone will not enable us to carry on in our workaday world. A most astute historian could not perform the simplest feat of surgery; he could not build a large bridge. But he can deal with the social effects of surgery and bridges and of medicine and engineering in general. The sociologist can then determine the social benefits and injuries within his field; the economist within his, and the political scientist within his. Historical processes are those of gathering, of ordering, and of primary assimilation. Certainly, this branch of learning rightfully looms large in modern education.

A Public School Name That Has Some Educational Significance

MARTIN WILSON

Chairman of Social Studies, James Monroe High School, New York

Frankly, this article was inspired by the one entitled, "Do Public School Names Have any Educational Significance?" by K. Otto Logan in the December issue of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, in which he upheld the thesis that such names seldom have any educational meaning that functions. The James Monroe High School of New York City seems to be an exception. With the idea that our experiences may be suggestive to others, I am writing about our efforts to make use of the inspiration of the statesman after whom our school was named, so that our institution might be more meaningful to our students.

In the first place, our school colors are not of the hit or miss variety, but were selected for an historical reason. Our school was organized in 1925 and opened in September of that year. In May, our energetic principal, Dr. Henry E. Hein asked the writer, as chairman-to-be of the social studies department, to see if any particular colors or any coat of arms connected with James Monroe could be found. After some research in the New York Public Library, he discovered that the family colors were crimson and gold, and that the coat of arms consisted of an eagle's head in gold on a crimson shield. Thus our school colors were set; and our seal and shield are copies of the Monroe coat of arms.

Early in our history we made contacts with the descendants of James Monroe, especially Mrs. Hoes, his great granddaughter, and her son, Lawrence Hoes of Washington, D.C., and later with another son who was in the United States army. They visited our school and spoke to our students. They graciously gave us a letter written by James Monroe and also silhouettes of him and his wife, which look down upon our students as they study in our library. They also furnished us with what they considered to be the best original portrait of Monroe for copying, so that our halls might have a suitable oil painting of our namesake.

A study of the services of Monroe, as an officer in the Revolutionary army, senator, minister, governor of Virginia, the person most responsible perhaps for the purchase of Louisiana, as secretary of state and secretary of war—he was the only person in our history who has held both offices at once—as

a sort of dictator for a time after the British captured Washington, and as President, convinced us that he ought to be in the American Hall of Fame at New York University. Accordingly, as the time approached for the election of members, we consulted the late Dr. Robert Underwood Johnson who was then the director. We prepared a letter to each of the approximately one hundred electors and a memorandum of several pages outlining the services of Monroe to his country and to peace. These were typed and mimeographed respectively by our department of secretarial studies. After his election to the Hall of Fame our students contributed more than four thousand dollars in order that his niche might have an appropriate bust and inscription. Most of our student body attended the ceremonies of unveiling the bust and we participated in the program.

Each year we observe the birthday of our school on April 28, the birthday of James Monroe. We always have a formal ceremony. Some of these have been very elaborate. Those at each lustrum we try to make especially significant. At one of them we had a pageant which was a real school project. The various departments of the school collaborated in regard to dramatics, dancing and music in performances that were significant in purpose and creditable to the participants. Each year, as a part of the observance, the principal and a delegation of honor students, sometimes with the school band, lay a wreath at the bust of Monroe in the Hall of Fame. At times the department of social studies has presented original plays relating to Monroe. Sometimes these have been representations of a Pan-American conference; at other times, events in the history of Latin America and its heroes.

In connection with one of these occasions, we took a group of fifty students to a visit to Ashlawn at Charlottesville, Virginia, the home Monroe had Jefferson erect for him on a hill opposite Monticello. There we were entertained by its gracious owners, Mr. and Mrs. Jay W. Johns. Mrs. Hoes added her charm to the welcome. In this connection we also visited Monticello and contributed our second one thousand dollar bond for the perpetuation of this shrine of patriotism, the home of Jefferson, Monroe's

sponsor, where one is shown a first floor room known at the "Monroe room." On our return to Washington, we were entertained at the home of Monroe's great granddaughter, Miss Gouveneur, and shown various Monroe relics.

Needless to say, busts and pictures of Monroe adorn our halls. Some of these have been made by gifted students under the supervision of our art department.

When Mr. Lawrence Hoes presented an oil portrait of his illustrious ancestor to the museum at Fredericksburg, Virginia, which had been the law office of Monroe at one time, our principal unveiled the painting and made an address. The writer and four other members of our faculty were present.

We aim to keep the work and wisdom of Monroe before our pupils. Not only do we teach the Monroe Doctrine, but also other significant parts of the memorable message of 1823 such as, "It is by rendering justice to other nations that we may expect it from them. It is by our ability to resent injuries and redress wrongs that we may avoid them"; and again, "The people being with us exclusively the sovereign, it is indispensable that full information be laid before them on all important subjects, . . . it is by such knowledge that local prejudices and jealousies are surmounted. . . ." From an inaugural we selected the following for our Log, "It is only when the people become ignorant and corrupt that they are incapable of exercising the sovereignty. Let us by all wise and constitutional measures promote intelligence among the people as the best means of preserving

our liberties."

We have organized a special course in Latin American history because we believe that too little is known of the development of the lands to the south of us with which Monroe's name is inseparably connected.

Moved by the Monroe Doctrine's broad implications, our school started a Pan-American Club. This movement spread to many other high schools of the city and country. It presents projects and programs. Even Mr. John Barrett and consular representatives have participated in them. The movement now supports a paper under the editorship of one of our faculty, Mr. William Wachs.

The career of Monroe has inspired our principal to bend every effort to carry out the spirit of the Monroe Doctrine by promoting better relations with Latin American countries. Their diplomatic representatives have participated in our ceremonies. He has toured Latin America, interviewing its statesmen and educational leaders in efforts to build better cultural relations and secure closer coöperation. Our Department of State has been brought into collaboration with these efforts. Student Pan-American clubs are being fostered to carry on the work. There are now nineteen such clubs in Ecuador alone. Our principal is now actively engaged in organizing courses at the University of Havana which can be credited in the United States and which will promote insight into Latin American history and culture in order that the significant work of Monroe for intelligence and understanding may better light the way to peace and progress.

Abraham Lincoln Still Unknown

HENRY W. LAWRENCE

Connecticut College, New London, Connecticut

When memorial wreaths are placed on the grave of "The Unknown Soldier," the ceremony gains its overwhelming significance from the fact that the hero is, and must forever remain, unknown. A nation's reverent gratitude is thus bestowed on a nameless martyr, and on all nameless martyrs to the country's need.

Mere namelessness, however, is not the only curtain that shuts off from public view the life and character of our national martyrs. And one of the most astonishing facts about that man who is often thought of as the Civil War's greatest martyr, is that Abraham Lincoln, who has been so long under the revealing

spotlight of Presidential and hero-worshipping publicity, is today—nearly three quarters of a century after his death—a figure unknown and mysterious.

His biographers are largely to blame, and also his patriotic countrymen, eager for a national demigod to worship. All are indifferent to the real facts about him. The story of the books written about Abraham Lincoln helps us to understand why this almost incomparable great American is still in large measure a creature of myth and fiction.

It is said that Lincoln was once given a copy of his own biography, just off the press, and asked to comment on it. He peered into it curiously, turned

over the pages slowly, reading bits here and there, now frowning, then chuckling, but absorbingly interested all the time. Suddenly he closed the book, looked squarely into the eyes of the expectant publisher and blasted his publicity hopes by saying, "Why this man is the prize liar of all history." Apparently the exaggerated and unreasonable praise distressed Lincoln, as it has many of his truth-seeking biographers since that time; but it has been a long and difficult task, still far from complete, to rescue his enduring fame from the improbable and impossible myths that have hidden him.

The very earliest accounts of his life were true to the facts. He wrote them himself in barest outline at the urgent request of his political managers, to serve as a basis for the campaign biographies in his 1860 struggle for the Presidency. One of the earliest of these biographies was written by a newspaper reporter, the subsequently famous novelist, William Dean Howells; this was his first published work. It was a partisan book, paid for by his appointment to the consulship at Venice. This and the other campaign biographies revealed very little about Lincoln, however. The same might be said of the veritable deluge of "lives" written immediately after his death. One of these, by a woman named Phoebe A. C. Hanaford, set the pace for all others by praising its hero as a veritable Messiah, and making his mother, Nancy Hanks, almost as exalted a person as the Blessed Virgin. At about the same time, another biographer made statements about Lincoln's orthodox Christianity and genteel habits, which subsequent and more critical writers have found it necessary to challenge. Taken all together, these earliest "lives" made this great American son of the soil look pretty much like a stuffed shirt.

In 1872 there was published a book whose author honestly tried to replace this view of him by a living human being. Its title was *The Life of Abraham Lincoln; From His Birth to His Inauguration as President*. The writer was Ward Hill Lamon, long an intimate friend and special law partner of Lincoln, and earnestly desirous of telling the truth about him. Unfortunately, the actual writing of the book was done for Lamon by a man who disliked Lincoln, and this dislike reveals itself at every opportunity throughout the volume, notwithstanding Lamon's supervision. Far more important than this, however, in prejudicing the public against the book, was the fact that it showed the hero as more human than divine: a shrewd politician, ambitious for power; a man of ungenteel personal habits and doubtful religious orthodoxy. The book proved a "flop" financially, and it won for its author a good deal of bitter unpopularity.

Meanwhile the flood of subscription biographies of "The Great Emancipator" continued for a generation. Filled with uncritical eulogy, and peddled from

door to door, they established firmly in the popular mind that tradition of Lincoln's superhuman qualities which still so largely conceals the grandeur of his struggle and his achievement. Anyone who ventured to challenge this tradition was likely to be howled down, however sincere and competent his challenge might be. William H. Herndon learned this by painful experience.

Herndon was Lincoln's law partner for more than a score of years, and long before that, they had been closely associated in many other ways. Both had inquiring minds and were fond of conversation on a wide variety of subjects. In the law office and out of it, they talked together endlessly, year after year, and with much revealing frankness. Herndon admired Lincoln tremendously, but he did not admire the stuffed-shirt portraits of him that most of the biographies were parading. Hence he set about gathering materials for a true biography of the man he had known so well. Before this task was finished, however, he was old and feeble, and in the actual writing of the book he welcomed the collaboration of Jesse W. Weik, a young graduate of Knox College. In 1889 their work was published: *Abraham Lincoln: the True Story of a Great Life*. Straightway there arose a vast uproar of horrified protest against this "obscene" and "infamous" biography. The great god Lincoln was here shown to be only a great man, and not so extraordinarily great at that. The popular idol was displayed in his shirt sleeves and wearing cowhide boots. Some unwarranted things were said about him in this book; e.g., that he was an "infidel." Herndon's prejudice against Mrs. Lincoln cropped out in such statements as that Lincoln had loved only one woman in his life, and that the woman was Ann Rutledge. Moreover, the book dealt almost not at all with the period of Lincoln's supreme achievement and development, the Presidential years, concerning which the authors had no first-hand knowledge. With all its faults, however, the more competent reviewers considered it to be the most important biography of Lincoln that had appeared, and most subsequent biographers have drawn upon it heavily. Nevertheless, an outraged multitude of Lincoln worshippers practically suppressed it.

In sharpest contrast to this work is the pretentious ten volume biography by John G. Nicolay and John Hay, most of which first appeared serially in the *Century Magazine* from 1885 to 1890. These two men were Lincoln's secretaries during the White House years, and their boundless admiration for him tended to exclude from their writing anything detrimental to his heroic fame. Moreover, the Lincoln papers, an important part of their materials, were owned by Robert T. Lincoln, the late President's son, and he carefully selected what might, and what might not, be published, even requiring that the

authors' manuscript be submitted for his approval before publication. The result is an excellent history of the times, but a rather unrevealing account of Abraham Lincoln.

One of the most important steps toward rescuing Lincoln's fame from fiction, and basing it solidly on fact, was taken by the eminent journalist and historian, Ida M. Tarbell. She once related to the present writer how she consulted Nicolay and Hay about the possible existence of material on Lincoln which they had overlooked; how they assured her that they had combed the field clean, and stated that she would find practically nothing new or important. She did, nevertheless, discover a vast amount of highly important evidence, upon which she based two series of articles, published in *McClure's Magazine* between 1895 and 1899, and later a book in 1900, entitled *Life of Abraham Lincoln, Drawn from Original Sources and Containing Many Speeches, Letters and Telegrams Hitherto Unpublished*. This book faithfully follows the evidence, seeking neither to debunk nor to deify the great statesman, but necessarily demolishing many of the hero-myths that had been invented about him, and backing up most statements by documentary proof. She was considerably more tactful with her astonishing revelations than Herndon had been, and partly on this account her immediate influence was greater on the revision of the Lincoln legend. She does not hesitate to show Lincoln as the dyed-in-the-wool politician, working day in and day out for his own partisan advancement. On the other hand, she omits such incidents of his marital infelicity as the story (related by her to the present writer) of how Mrs. Lincoln once locked him out of the White House because he attended, quite officially, the wedding of a cabinet member's daughter whom the first lady strongly disliked.

In 1931 was published the most devastating and ill-tempered criticism of Abraham Lincoln that this country has ever seen in book form. Its author was the poet Edgar Lee Masters; its title, *Lincoln, the Man*. It shocked and infuriated the Lincoln worshippers, and many more rational persons also. The press and the patriotic societies screamed at it, as they had at Herndon's account more than forty years earlier, but with an opposite consequence. Whereas Herndon's book found almost no buyers, the volume by Masters was reprinted five times in the month of its first appearance. It is a special plea against Lincoln, erring as far by its unceasing hostility as many other biographies have erred by their universal praise. Standing by itself it is almost a grotesque slander, but as an antitoxin for the sickish old traditions

about Lincoln it probably serves a useful purpose. Certainly, it falls far short of presenting the fair and adequate portrait that intelligently patriotic Americans so greatly desire. Incidentally its views are almost the opposite of those presented by that other poet-biographer, Carl Sandburg, in his moving and revealing account of *Abraham Lincoln: The Prairie Years*.

It is not concerning the prairie years, however, that we most need further information on the mysterious Lincoln. It is rather the Presidential years that sorely need revealing: the years in which Lincoln suddenly grew into a greatness quite undiscernible in his earlier career. Probably the most nearly successful attempt to explain his life during this Presidential period is that of Nathaniel W. Stephenson, subtitled, "An Account of His Personal Life, Especially of Its Springs of Action as Revealed and Deepened by the Ordeal of War." Stephenson shows Lincoln as hopelessly inadequate and bewildered in the first part of his Presidency; then he pictures him as finding himself rather suddenly amid the agonies of the Civil War and growing rapidly to be perhaps the greatest of all Americans.

It is generally agreed, however, among historians, that the completely adequate biography of Lincoln is still to be written, and that, until it appears, he must remain largely mysterious and misunderstood. They have in mind such a biography as that of Robert E. Lee, recently published by Douglas S. Freeman, which seems to leave nothing further to be done in fair and lucid revelation of its subject; or perhaps the almost equally competent and satisfying *Life of John Marshall* by the late Senator Albert J. Beveridge. It is one of the major tragedies of biographical writing that this same Senator Beveridge died in the very midst of preparing what promised to be the long-awaited definitive, and indisputably true life of Lincoln. After the death of Beveridge, the part of the biography which he had nearly completed was published, but it brings the life story down only to 1858; hence it does not touch the Presidential years. According to his own biographer, Beveridge, while gathering the materials for this work, was amazed and shocked to find how often they contradicted or sharply modified the published accounts of Lincoln. He found, too, that the Lincoln of 1862-1865 resembled the earlier Lincoln no more than a butterfly resembles a caterpillar. We have now, in Beveridge's published work, a factually adequate account of the caterpillar stage; but the mysterious process by which this caterpillar became a glorious butterfly has yet to be competently revealed.

The Making of the Scotch-Irish

ELIZABETH S. HOOPES

Spring Mill, Pennsylvania

Three hundred years ago an Irish landlord raised a tenant's rent from twenty-one to two hundred cows a year. Unimportant? One might think so, but that incident was like a stone dropped into quiet water. The ripples which it started have touched far distant shores and affected the history of nations—among them our own. Here is the story.

First of all it must be remembered that since the days of Earl Strongbow, in 1170, the English have tried at intervals to conquer Ireland, and the Irish have refused as persistently to accept defeat. After the Reformation a new source of antagonism was found in the fact that while England and Scotland became Protestant, Ireland clung tenaciously to the Catholic faith. When, in 1603, the king of Scotland ascended the English throne, the Scotch became far more closely linked to their old foes in England than they were to their Celtic kin in Ireland. Therefore, when King James heeded Bacon's wise advice that it was easier to pacify a hostile country by means of colonists than with soldiers, he decided to leaven the lump of Irish rebels with settlements of his loyal Scotch Presbyterians. But the Ulster Plantation—which is the name given to this moving of thousands of lowland Scots across the sea to Ireland—owed its real start to the demand of Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, for two hundred cows a year from his chief vassal, O'Cahan.

The earl had led a revolt against England which had been put down after considerable hard fighting. One by one the Irish chiefs had made peace, but the O'Neill had been slow about it and his vassal, O'Cahan, submitted without his permission. To punish him the earl raised his rent, and when he did not pay, took his land away from him. O'Cahan appealed to England, and the king ordered the earl to come to London. So well-known a rebel as the Earl of Tyrone would naturally dislike such a summons, but it was particularly dangerous just at this time, because he was involved in a plot with the Earl of Tyrconnel to get aid from the king of Spain for another revolt. Instead of obeying, both earls fled from the country. They were declared traitors, and their lands (between them they owned most of Ulster) became the property of king James. This was in 1607; by 1610 the Ulster Plantation was under way and the northern counties were filling up with

Scotch settlers. It has been estimated that by 1640 there were one hundred thousand Scots in northern Ireland. They were mostly thrifty, hard-working farmers, ruled by their Presbyterian ministers, and ready to dare any hardship for the sake of a fertile bit of farm land.

It was a wild country to which they came. Ulster was still a land of extensive forests and undrained bogs, inhabited by wolves and the dispossessed Irish kerns. Both threatened the safety of the settlers and their cattle. Although living in a virtual state of siege, the Scotchmen cleared their fields and built their sturdy stone houses. For the next thirty years they labored to maintain what they called the "Scotch Nation in the North of Ireland," the existence of which was hampered more and more by the growing antipathy of the Stuarts to Presbyterians. The lord deputy became so severe that many of the ministers and leading men returned to Scotland to escape his tyranny, and were—fortunately for themselves—absent when the native Irish rose in a great rebellion in 1641. Thousands of Protestants were killed, and the war thus begun continued until peace was restored by Oliver Cromwell in 1653. It was during these troubles that the Solemn League and Covenant, a bond pledging the maintenance of the reformed religion, the extirpation of popery and prelacy, and the preservation of the liberties of the kingdom, was signed by English, Scotch, and Irish Presbyterians. At the end of the Civil Wars, the Ulster Scots had proved that they could hold their own in spite of war, famine, and persecution. Under the orderly government of Cromwell they flourished.

The Restoration in 1660 ended their brief period of prosperity. They refused to conform to the doctrines and practices of the established Church of England, and therefore suffered persecution. James II—himself a Catholic—reversed his grandfather's policy and favored his co-religionists, appointing native Irish to most of the important positions in the government and the army. This stood him in good stead when the English drove him out in 1688, for all Ireland except Ulster rose in his support.

Londonderry was the only town in Ulster which the Protestants were able to hold. They drove out their treacherous governor, and for one hundred and five days fought off the bulk of the Irish army. Nine

miles away the English ships waited in the bay for a chance to come to their aid, but the Irish soldiers camped between and blocked the river with a boom of fir trees bound with chains. For one hundred and five days the Derry men held off the besiegers; their comrades died of wounds, disease, and starvation; the water supply ran low and the food gave out; they lived on horses, dogs, and rats; and still the cry was, "No surrender!" Pancakes made of starch and tallow were considered good eating.

The sails of the English ships were clearly visible from the tower of the cathedral. One Sunday evening the wind turned to the north, and the sentries saw three ships spread their sails and start up the

river. One was a frigate and two were merchantmen carrying food. They ran past the Irish guns and the frigate hurled herself against the boom. It cracked, but did not break, and the great ship rebounded to a sand bank and stuck fast. The besiegers attempted to board her, but were driven off, and the rising tide floated her once more. Again she tried the boom, and this time went crashing through the barricade. By ten o'clock the ships had reached the quay and the precious food was being unloaded, while all the bells of the city rang for joy.

The serious struggle was over and the revolt was broken. The Scotch-Irish had indeed made a lasting mark on history.

Progressivism in Social Studies Teaching

GORDON G. HUMBERT

Frank B. Willis High School, Delaware, Ohio

Progressive education, as the term denotes, is a reaction against the traditional philosophy and procedures still pervading the larger number of our American schools. The movement is closely identified with the preservation of American democratic ideals through developing pupil experiences as opposed to the autocratic methods of regimentation—of forcing all pupils to conform to the one set mold—so common in our schools today.

Many people contend that the school has done its share in the preservation of American democratic ideals. However, close observance of actual school practices from the administrative set up to classroom procedures points to the falsity of this argument. As Boyd H. Bode states, "It would be natural to suppose that the American people would seek to perpetuate the concept of democracy through its public educational agencies. But, as a matter of fact, we have done so only in a random and thoroughly inadequate fashion. Tradition has been too strong. Our educational theories and practices were borrowed from other peoples; they were not reconstructed and revitalized by a philosophy of democracy, so as to make them conform to the spirit and ideals of our nation."

Progressive social studies teachers recognize this conflict. They are setting up their educational machinery on a thoroughly democratic basis with the firm conviction that the product will not only preserve, but will better our existing democracy. It is their contention that such a school will become a leader in society, not an institution for the maintenance of the *status quo*. And the best way to educate

a really democratic citizenry, they contend, is to set up life-like situations out of which the pupil will emerge as thinking, coöperative individuals, with the eagerness to grow and to assume new responsibilities. To realize this we must have faith in the intelligence of all boys and girls of secondary school age.

This conception of the true purpose of our school is influencing modern thought and practices in many ways. In this article it will be possible to make only brief reference to the trends in the Frank B. Willis High School.

1. *Training in Good Citizenship Through Participation:*

Social science classes are organized on a democratic basis. The class elects a president at bi-weekly intervals. The same student is not to hold two successive terms of office, and preferably only one term during the year, in order to give all the members of the class a chance to perform the duties of president. Immediately after the sound of the class bell the president calls the room to order, and proceeds to a discussion of the outstanding problems of the day, or local, state, national, and international problems of the previous day. The discussion is informal, and very nearly one hundred per cent participate. Such a discussion usually takes up the first ten minutes of each class period. Then the president turns the class over to the committee in charge of the program for the day.

As a result of this approach students read the daily newspapers, listen to the radio, and read the

current periodicals, of their own accord. In fact, to prove this assertion, each student has a glossary of terms, personalities, places, and events. In addition they have the names of the outstanding radio programs (time, content of program, and personality in charge), and also a list of eminent newspaper columnists, and the newspapers in which their writings are found. Almost daily I hear students refer to Paul Sullivan, Boake Carter, Lowell Thomas, "High Lights in History," as well as to the *Deleware Gazette*, *Columbus Journal*, *Dispatch*, *Citizen*, *Cleveland Plain Dealer*, *New York Times*, *Chicago Tribune*, *Scholastic*, *Time*, *Current History*, and other current periodicals to which they have access in the high school library.

2. Interest, Purpose, and Pupil Activity:

Boys and girls are by nature interested in the events occurring today. Approach the study of "Racial Problems" through the German Olympics, or the study of the "work of the mill and factory" through preliminary discussion of the NRA as it existed and affected the very lives of some of the students and their families in the community, and you will discover that interest is the only true means of motivation. Students will work, and do an intelligent day's work too, if they see a good common sense reason for doing so.

3. Planning with Pupils:

At the end of the daily discussion of current problems we turn to our problem or activity for the day. The students engage whole-heartedly in all activities because they previously planned the unit in conjunction with the teacher. If students are to put objectives into action they must discover what these objectives are to be in each unit. Objectives superimposed from above mean little to the pupil. A teacher can no more do the planning for the student than she can do the thinking for him. As Dewey states in his *Education and Democracy*: "Only by wrestling with the problem at first hand, seeking and finding his way out, does he [the pupil] think." The function of the teacher in such a class becomes one of guidance. The true guide goes along with the one exploring, not to dominate his purpose, but to give needed suggestions at the appropriate time.

The class uses one or two periods in selecting the problem, stating objectives, selecting activities, bibliography, and planning each unit. Problems are selected on the basis of their significance in our own community. A committee of students volunteer to study the pattern of community thought on the problem. This is discussed in class. From this, the next step is the development of the history of the problem. This type of coöperative action places pupil development above mere routine subject-matter learning. Often the teacher ignores the influence of pupil purpose on learning. In most cases attention is devoted so com-

pletely to getting pupils to engage in activities, or to memorize certain subject matter that little thought is given to what pupils are endeavoring to achieve by means of activities and subject matter. The present experience of the pupil will be altered only if he understands what he is setting out to do.

4. Psychological Versus Logical Organization of Subject Matter:

In the approach to the study of the problem, "Will the United States be drawn into the present European conflict," last year, the class secretary made the following paragraph summary: "Our community is interested today in whether or not the United States will become entangled in European affairs. Our community, as proven by pupil research, is in favor of retaining an aloof attitude at any cost." (From this community approach students proceeded to study the existing situation with a desire to make some definite contributions for maintaining peace.)

"The situation in Europe can be stated in the following terms. Italy is at war with Ethiopia. Great Britain is greatly disturbed because Italian domination of Ethiopia means that Italy will control one of the two sources of the Nile river, and Anglo-Egyptian Sudan productivity depends on this source for water supply. Japan and Russia are in outer Mongolia. France made a supposedly secret treaty with Russia, and as a result Germany declared the Locarno Pact a dead letter, and immediately sent troops into the neutral territory east of the French boundary. (This territory belongs to Germany but was not to be militarized.) France turned to the League of Nations in the German situation. England sent a note of protest to the League concerning Italian occupation of Ethiopia, and threatens to withdraw from the League unless something is done immediately. A great many nations are resorting to international propaganda to further their own cause. What will be the ultimate result? Will it eventually develop into another situation similar to the one in 1914-1918? Before we can discuss this problem intelligently as to American intervention we must discover causes and results of our participation in the Spanish American War and World War, and then make definite proposals."

The pupils then proceeded from this psychological approach to the logical organization of the books dealing with this particular problem. They planned their activities well in advance. Certain periods were given to planning the unit. Laboratory periods, library periods, short informal socialized discussions, radio panels on world affairs, panel discussion, and the climax a debate, were all part of the attempt to seek a solution to the problem, Will American be drawn into the present European alignment? Our approach in this instance was from the psychological to the logical and thence back to the psychological.

5. *The Panel Discussion as the Most Democratic Activity:*

In recognition of the fact that thinking is the core of all learning, teachers will do well to use the new teaching aid, the panel discussion. By the use of this activity we get a whole-hearted natural response. The pupil not only becomes aware of the problems of the day, and offers his solution thereto, but he develops as a result. This activity gives the pupil a great deal of confidence in his own opinion. Such a method contributes greatly to the development of thinking, coöperative individuals, a necessity if our democracy is to endure. Thinking as a method of life, is truly in keeping with the democratic spirit. In this activity pupils prepare, plan, execute, and judge. In the first place we have a genuine problem growing out of the study of current problems which is a stimulus to thought. From this he refers back to the logical organization of research books where he gets the necessary information and makes the needed observations in order to deal with the problem. Out of this procedure solutions occur to the pupils which they are responsible for developing in an orderly way. In the climax, the panel discussion, he has occasion to test his ideas of application and as a result their meaning is made clear and their validity tested. Knowledge, in this sense, is used immediately and not stored up and displayed when called for. In such an activity the static, cold-storage idea of knowledge which is hostile to educative development is avoided. In its place we substitute a concern for the human element—the desire to aid the pupil in developing a good way of life.

6. *Memorization of Facts Versus Thinking:*

If students are to profit from socialized discussion teachers must not assign factual material as an end in itself. An assignment of "the next three pages" of

facts will lead to nothing but a recitation of facts. Problems must be assigned and facts applied in the solution thereof. Only in this manner can we hope to educate a "thinking" citizenry. And our democratic form of government demands an intelligent, concerned public.

7. *Mass Outline Requirements:*

If teachers are to make the most of the library period they must forget the mass-outline idea and attempt to create interest in the reading of historical literature for the love of reading. The "free choice" library period, and intelligent guidance, are the solution to this problem. The interest of the student is too often killed by the requirement that he write one or two pages of notes for each page read. His reading in this sense becomes drudgery, and he learns to hate the very subjects that should be contributing most to his understanding of the present economic and social chaos.

8. *The Final Analysis:*

In keeping with these suggestions, subject matter is not memorized as an end in itself, but it is used as necessary research material in order to understand the great problems which are of striking concern to the people of our community. In approaching problems from this angle, the writer takes advantage of the natural interest of the students in events of the day, and as a result the students are happy at their task. They are attempting to solve problems rather than to memorize subject matter as an end in itself. The writer is convinced as a result of systematic, incidental observations that the very personalities are altered in keeping with the American democratic way of living. In other words, pupils are actually developing a real way of life as a result of democratic living while in school.

A Check List for Units in History

ARTHUR DILLMAN GRAY

Hartwell High School, Cincinnati, Ohio

One of the problems which confronts any teacher is that of adequate lesson planning. Many teachers regard such planning as mere drudgery. In truth, much of the daily lesson planning as required by many supervisors, is nothing but drudgery. However, supervisors and teachers who follow the plan of dividing the material to be taught into large units, and planning the work for an entire unit, find that much of the

drudgery is thereby eliminated. They also find that their teaching efficiency is greatly increased by such unit planning.

So much has been written and said concerning unitary organization that it may seem presumptuous for the present writer to argue the merits of the plan. It is a matter of common knowledge, however, that the day-to-day lesson assignment and the "take so many

pages tomorrow" plan are very prevalent types of procedure in both rural and city elementary and high schools.

In those schools where the unitary plan is used, much commendable work is being done along the lines of organizing material. However, many of the units which have come to the attention of the writer lend themselves to the possibility of considerable improvement.

A few years ago it was the writer's privilege to teach in a progressive teacher-training institution. One of the requirements in his teacher-training classes in history was that each student-teacher prepare one or more teachable units in history. Inexperienced as these students were, a very frequent question arose: "What shall we include in a teaching unit of history?" In an attempt to answer this question, the instructor, with the assistance of his classes, devised a score card, or rather a check list for measuring a history unit.

This check list was found to be useful in at least two ways. Curriculum makers, departments of education, commercial publishing houses, and others are continually sending out material to lighten the teacher's burdens. Included in this material may be found unit plans, some of them excellent, and some of very doubtful value, for the teacher's use. The check list has provided a somewhat objective measure for this material.

The greater value, however, proved to be the setting up of standards for the student-teachers' own work. They knew what was to be included in a history unit. After a unit was constructed the student-teacher and the instructor compared it with the check list, and where the unit did not appear to meet the standards established, revision was made. The student-teachers were often observed planning history units, with the check list before them as a guide. Teachers of history in the training department found the check list very useful. The critic-teachers reported a marked improvement in the unit plans submitted, and in the quality of practice teaching done. Other departments of the school devised similar check lists for the measurement of units prepared by their student-teachers.

It was found necessary, in some instances, to warn student-teachers against mechanizing their work. In such cases, the student seemed to regard the check list as an end in itself, rather than as a means to the end. This of course may constitute a criticism of the check list, but the criticism should be directed against its misuse, rather than against the check list itself.

The check list, while particularly devised for units in senior high school history, can be easily adapted to elementary school and junior high school materials, as well as to junior college situations. The writer has used it in supervisory work in all of these levels, and at present, as a teacher of American and European history in a city senior high school, uses it in the con-

struction of his own units. With certain adaptations, it can be applied to other social science units, as well as to those in history.

The check list is given in full, not as a panacea, but in the hope that it may prove helpful, not only to instructors and student-teachers in teacher-training institutions, but also to supervisors of history and teachers in the field. The latter should consider themselves student-teachers, so far as attempts at self-improvement go, until the end of their teaching service.

THE CHECK LIST

I. Objectives

1. Are the objectives clearly and definitely stated?
2. Do the specific objectives of the unit contribute to a realization of the general objectives of history, and of the objectives of the social sciences as a whole?
3. Are the objectives attainable?

II. Understandings

1. Does the unit organization provide for a series of definite understandings?
2. Does the unit organization provide for understandings, rather than for knowledge of isolated facts?
3. Is due attention given to events, to conditions, to institutions, and to persons?

III. Organization

1. Does the name of the unit tell what is to be emphasized in teaching it?
2. Is the name of the unit coordinate in form and content with the other units of the course?
3. Is the unit coherent, and does it treat an outstanding phase of history?

IV. Bibliographical Material

1. Is reference made to parallel texts?
2. Is reference made to collateral material which is graded to the pupils' capabilities?
3. Is reference made to high grade illustrative fiction material?

V. Personages

1. Is provision made for attention to the contributions of great men and women to that phase of history?
2. Is provision made for further biographical and inspirational study of these men and women?

VI. Time Element

1. Is provision made for attention to important events, with their dates?
2. Is provision made for definite contributions

to an understanding of time relationships?

VII. Geographical Element

1. Does the unit place proper emphasis on the importance of geography in the study of the particular phase of history?
2. Is provision made for sufficient map study for the pupils to gain an understanding of geographical factors?

VIII. Tests

1. Do the tests test for understandings, or facts which lead to understandings, rather than facts for facts' sake?
2. Are the tests, whether essay or new-type, sufficiently objective so that the teacher's personal viewpoints can be eliminated from the scoring?
3. Are the tests reliable and comprehensive?

HOW TO USE THE CHECK LIST

The above check list was constructed with certain well-defined principles in mind. The unit is conceived as that defined by Morrison, "a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment, of an organized science, of an art, or of conduct, which being learned, results in an adaptation of personality."¹ The technique of organization was adapted from materials prepared by Professor Tryon² and others. If the writer has failed in his interpretation of their efforts, the fault is his, not theirs.

The list was set up with the assumption that each question is to be answered in the affirmative, if the unit being measured is to meet its requirements. It begins with the further assumption that objectives, both general and specific, are an essential part of any teaching unit. The determination of what those objectives should be rests with the individual teacher. There is no dearth of available material upon the subject of objectives.³

The reader is referred to Robert B. Weaver's interpretation of understandings.⁴ It is true that the whole procedure in organizing and teaching the unit is to provide understandings which will lead to the attainment of the learning objectives set forth. This is true of the subsequent headings, "Organization," "Bibliographical Material," and the others as well. The heading "Understandings," is included in the check list for the sake of emphasis, and the emphasis cannot be too often repeated.

According to Tryon, "There are certain prerequisites which should guide one in organizing the field of American history. . . . Chief among these are the number, length, date boundaries, and names of the main divisions."⁵ In the check list the name has been emphasized. "The name must suggest the dominant movements or characteristics of the period. . . ."⁶

Coherence is also emphasized here, because the unit should "hang together," and all parts should bear a definite relation to the title and to the objectives.

The categories, "Bibliographical Material,"⁷ and "Personages,"⁸ are important, but self-explanatory. The item, "Time Element," refers to one of the most disputed and most difficult phases of history teaching. According to Kelty, "Many teachers have . . . hastened to the conclusion that the time factor should be completely disregarded in the social science program,—a conclusion with which social scientists have registered their complete disapproval."⁹ The teacher need no more apologize for teaching dates in history than for carrying a watch, or having a calendar on his desk. The choice of dates-events to be included must be determined by the individual teacher, and his method of teaching time sense will depend upon many circumstances. It is to be observed that this check list applies principally to the planning and organization of materials to be taught. The actual teaching of the unit is not the subject of this article.

The importance of the heading, "Geographical Element," will not be questioned. The bibliography for the unit should contain titles which lead pupils to an understanding of the relationship of geography to history. Map study, of course, will include the study of physical, as well as political maps. The making of maps by the pupils, or the filling in of outline maps, will probably fulfill the requirements of this category. Here again, the ingenuity of the teacher must determine the extent of the work to be done.¹⁰

"Testing is a part of the teaching process."¹¹ The construction of tests is a part of unit planning. As in all other categories the tests should apply to the objectives of the unit. Test experts have agreed upon a number of qualities which compose the best standards for evaluating tests. Among these are validity, reliability, objectivity, and comprehensiveness.¹² Objectivity has been emphasized in the check list, while comprehensiveness and reliability have not been neglected.¹³

This check list is far from being a complete appraisal of unitary organization. It could be expanded to contain a large number of other categories.¹⁴ It has been the writer's desire to make it a useable and practicable measure of actual teaching units. It has met this requirement from his own standpoint, and it is his earnest hope that it may do the same for others.

¹ H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1931), pp. 24-25.

² R. M. Tryon, *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1921). The writer is also indebted to Professor Tryon for unpublished materials used in his classes at the University of Chicago.

³ Charles A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), Chapters VII-VIII.

⁴ Robert B. Weaver, "United States History," in *World Book* (Chicago: W. F. Quarrie and Company, 1930), pp. 8501-8506.

lower left. The letter *p* denotes primary source material. An author's suggestion to use secondary material is designated by the letter *s*. For the sake of simplicity, books on the teaching of history have been given numbers that range from 1 through 12, at the top of the chart. Source books are lettered from A to H. Numbers and letters appear opposite the authors' names in the KEY. By beginning with any author's number, or letter, at the top of the chart; then, reading down in a perpendicular manner, the contents of each book may be viewed in the light of objectives, and the kinds of sources recommended.

SUMMARY

Books on the Teaching of History

The content of twelve books on the teaching of history gave the following opinions regarding what objectives are served through the use of sources:

1. Nine books gave testing accuracy by use of primary sources as beneficial. One book recommended the use of secondary sources for the same purpose.
2. Eight books indicated interpretation as a worthy outcome of using primary sources.
3. Eight books prescribed immediate contact and experience in use as worthy attention. One book recommended the use of secondary material for the same objective.
4. Ten books described the utilization of primary sources for atmospheric appreciation as desirable.
5. Six books termed the use of primary sources as valuable when used as adjuncts to historical narrative. In most instances this meant sources were to be used with the basic text.
6. Six books recommended the need of primary sources as material for topical work. Two books indicated secondary sources as usable for the same purpose.
7. Eight books directed the reading of primary sources for information. Three books advocated secondary sources be used for information.

The kinds of sources recommended in form of writing in these twelve books on the teaching of history were as follows: biographies 2; poems 1; letters 5; essays 1; memoirs 4; codes 4; official records 4; speeches 6; newspapers 2; and source books 8.

Source Books

The content of eight source books, limited to the directions found in the introductions and prefaces of these books, gave the following teaching objectives:

1. Two books mentioned the use of primary sources for testing accuracy in the teaching of history.
2. Five books gave interpretation as a valuable activity in using primary sources.
3. Three books gave immediate contact and ex-

perience in use as a worth while outcome.

4. Five books directed the use of sources for atmospheric appreciation of value.

5. Five books recommended sources as adjuncts to historical narrative, that is, in connection with the basic text.

6. One book indicated that sources might be used as material for topical work.

7. Two books advocated the reading of source material for information.

The kinds of sources recommended in form of writing in these eight source books were as follows: biographies 1; poems 2; letters 3; essays 1; memoirs 3; codes 1; official records 4; speeches 2; newspapers 1; and source books 8.

Implications

1. The frequency of similar opinions does not necessarily show the relative importance of one objective in relation to other objectives. This generalization might also be accepted as quite applicable to the kinds of sources suggested in this study.

2. Source materials are useful in bringing about a more complete understanding of immediate learning objectives, and the broader educational aims of history teaching.

3. It appears that the most persistent tendency within the objectives is the synthesizing function that can be experienced by the student while achieving "historical mindedness."

4. The objectives found, may be considered as valuable *residual functions* to be had by the skillful use of source books, speeches, official records, letters, and other sources.

5. There is an appreciable amount of evidence to show agreement among authorities regarding the use of sources in history teaching.

6. There are numerous questions and problems dealing with the proper utilization of printed sources in the secondary schools that await investigation.

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Forums in the High School

PAUL H. SHEATS

Field Counselor, Public Forum Project, United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

The student director of one of the school forum programs, which has operated during the past year as a feature of the forum demonstrations sponsored by the United States Office of Education, writes as follows:

For several years there has been no student organization of any kind at ——— High School for the study of government and governmental problems. Naturally the creation of a student forum was as gratifying to those of us who are interested in good government as it was terrifying to those on the faculty who have discouraged all efforts of this type in the past. But the forum did answer a real need at ——— High School. The attendance was not consistently large, but I believe that those who came regularly benefited to a great degree. Naturally, no problems of great economic and governmental importance were solved. Sometimes we were not even certain of the exact nature of the problems. But we did get a fairly good idea of the magnitude and significance of these problems. The amount of advertising which we did, and I know that it was small, was not directed at the intelligentsia, but at the average student. It was they who really needed some sort of awakening. And I believe the forum made them, and everyone who had been interested for a longer period, conscious that a democracy, to be maintained, must be guarded with care.

I think every person sincerely enjoyed all of the speakers. We respected them as authorities although we did not accept their opinions as law, nor did they expect us to. They were all most fair in this way. Only one of the speakers gave us the "world is your oyster" line, and of

course, we realized that due to his connection with certain economic enterprises this was quite to be expected.

Gauged by the volume of correspondence with this office on the subject, student and teacher interest in a school program of free and open discussion of current political and economic problems is rapidly on the increase. Most recurrent objectives are: better understanding of present-day social problems, practice in group thinking and group discussion, and escape from the limitations of formal classroom procedures.

School forum organizations fit no universal pattern. Some, as in Des Moines, Iowa, and Portland, Oregon, are planned as an integral part of the regular classroom work. In successive class periods all members of the regular social science classes meeting regularly at that hour come together in a forum under the leadership of a member of the teaching staff who devotes all or a portion of his time to the forum work.

In the majority of cases the forums are held as part of the extra-class program of school activities. There may be a "World Affairs Club" as in New Haven, Connecticut, a "Forum Club" as in St. Joseph, Missouri, a "Social Science Forum" as in Rochester, New York, or a "Foreign Affairs Group" as in Albany, New York, meeting during the free activity period, or after school and using teacher leaders, or invited speakers, or as frequently happens relying entirely upon student leadership and participation.

Still other schools seek training in the forum method and a freer approach to information on contemporary public affairs through the use of mock conventions and model assemblies. For example, in Omaha, Nebraska, a model congress meets fortnightly and discusses "bills" dealing with social, economic, and political problems.

Variations from more typical patterns of organization include: (1) programs in which the school forum is an adjunct of a community-wide adult forum program as in the forum demonstration centers sponsored by the United States Office of Education with special meetings scheduled for the discussion of youth problems under expert leadership, and (2) programs in which the radio has been used. In the latter case, at least two procedures have been tried. Under one plan the forum leader precedes his weekly meetings with the student-forum groups in each school with a half-hour radio broadcast early in the week in which he presents the essential facts on the topic under discussion, and to which the members of the student-forum listen. Thus, when later in the week he meets with the various student groups in their school forums he can plunge at once into the discussion of the controversial issues raised in his broadcast.

Under the second plan a student panel drawn from the various forum groups in the school system presents a discussion over the air which is listened to in the participating schools and followed by a half-hour of extended discussion in each of the school-forum groups.

Constant in all of these types of school-forum organization are: student or combined student-faculty management and control, emphasis on the value of political and economic literacy as a characteristic of the good citizen, opportunity for practice in the collection, organization, and use of information about contemporary and controversial issues, and finally the actual sharing of ideas and experiences on the floor of the forum through ample provision for student participation and discussion.

A great variety of topics have been discussed. Typical are the following subjects taken from sample lists sent to this office: Sit-Down Strikes, Does the Government Owe Youth a Living? Under Which Party Would Youth have the Best Opportunity? Have Parents a Right to Their Children's Earnings? When Are We Educated? What Does Democracy Mean? Youth and Unemployment, and Youth in Europe.

Different meetings employ different procedures. Some centers use the lecture-discussion approach with the leader taking half the period to present the background and essential facts of the issue under consideration. The balance of the period is devoted to free discussion. Questions may be asked, of course, but students are encouraged to express their own ideas, opinions, and points of view.

Other centers find the panel-discussion method

more suited to their purpose. The leader shares the first half of the period with the members of a student panel who have made preparation for the discussion and who are selected to represent as many points of view as possible. It should be noted that unlike school debaters such panel members present points of view honestly and not artificially held. In the words of one correspondent, "Forums are different from debates. In a forum people do not argue just to prove a point or feel that their side wins. They try to stick to the truth. In the forum there is no decision—nothing wins but the truth."

The symposium method has also been used with success in some school forums. By this method several sides of the issue under discussion are presented in short ten or fifteen minute speeches followed by open discussion.

Students and teachers alert to democracy's need for an improved and vitalized program of citizenship education in the schools have found in the forum and the discussion method at least one effective means to the meeting of this need. In the forums high school students are given the opportunity to hear both sides of controversial issues presented and to participate in the discussion of them. They learn to distinguish propaganda from fact, to avoid snap judgments on complex problems, to be critical of the nostrums and panaceas offered by the self-appointed leaders of our time. In learning the techniques of discussion and skill in self-expression students enhance and broaden their present and future value to the community as good citizens.

It is hoped that many schools and colleges not now offering the type of citizenship education which the forum seeks to provide will introduce such a program. School experience must stimulate students to look forward as well as backward. It must provide training in the skills of discussion and methods of critical analysis. The chief function of the school in a democracy—preparation in citizenship—is best fulfilled by organizing practical opportunities for the students to practice group discussion by which they will be able to keep abreast of the changing times and act with intelligence in the common welfare.

Note: The Forum Counseling Service, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., is prepared to give advisory assistance to high-school teachers and students in the planning of student forum programs. A bulletin describing various types of school-forum programs and entitled *Forums for Young People* is ready for distribution. Order by title and number: Office of Education Bulletin No. 25 (1937), from the Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

Why the Term "Social Sciences" Has Come into Use

A. FRANKLIN ROSS

Chairman, Social Science Department, Stuyvesant High School, New York

The term "social sciences" as used in the secondary schools is of recent origin. From the point of view of school administration it contributes to the unification and simplification of the curriculum. The subjects embraced are: community civics, economic geography, history in all its branches, economics, and elementary sociology wherever it finds a place in the secondary instruction. However, the primary reason for the general acceptance of the term has to do with the content of courses that deal with human relations, *i.e.*, social sciences. The name has been adopted because the objective in the teaching of the whole group of studies has changed in recent years. It is here, then, that we perceive the real value in tracing the reason for the adoption of the name "social sciences." To seek to comprehend the significance of the new name for the group is not a mere matter of academic curiosity. The name really sets up a goal toward which we are trying to advance.

A common criticism aimed against the teaching of the whole group is that it has dealt too narrowly with political and chronological elements. Teachers of the subjects have been charged with dead formalism, teaching in such a manner that no personality change in pupils has resulted. What are the proofs pointed to? The ineptness, inertness, and indifferences of our body of citizens who have been exposed to the teaching of these subjects. It is charged that all the numerous ills in public life would not, and could not occur if adults had been properly instructed when they were being taught in the schools. The alarming increase of juvenile crime is pointed to as a case in point. This charge would seem to bring the responsibility of the social relations teachers dangerously near to the problem. Then, there are the forty thousand deaths annually caused by automobiles on the highways. What have our schools done to our citizens that they should be so reckless on the highways and apparently so indifferent? The new Stokes law requiring the schools of New York state to give courses in highway safety and traffic regulations, specifies that elementary and junior high school pupils will be required to devote at least thirty periods in the school year to the safety course. New York state legislators seem determined,

therefore, that school teachers shall do something to make their teaching function in a *social way*.

The study of sociology which has been and still remains a college or university subject deals strictly with man in his social relations. The unit of study in this subject is the *socius*, or man in his social relations. Although sociology is largely a college or university subject, still, by a process of peaceful penetration the methods and the principles of study in sociology have made their way into the study of history, and all the other so-called social sciences. The teaching of these subjects has been *socialized*. Human relations and programs for improving human relations have become the focus of study.

Many educators in their zeal to enable the schools to turn out a better quality of citizenship, have taken the stand that the social sciences shall be made the "core of the curriculum." But teachers of these subjects are not so sure that it is wise to set the social sciences in that central position. They do not feel that there is sufficient agreement as to method of instruction or content of subject matter. Furthermore, they feel that the responsibility is unwarranted and too great. They do not want to play the part of "fools [who] rush in where angels fear to tread." Failure to save society through social science teaching might react harmfully and unjustly upon the teaching of those subjects.

It is interesting in this connection to note the emphasis that is put upon social science teaching by the Russian soviet government both in elementary and in higher grades of instruction. History, of course, is taught from the Marxian point of view. In the soviet system, emphasis is placed upon what is accounted to be practical and useful. The useful subjects are considered to be history, arithmetic, geography, the natural sciences, economics. These subjects are studied rather to the exclusion of Greek, Latin, philosophy, and the foreign languages. The motive is apparent—the production of a type of citizen. But the motive in American education is similar—the production of citizens who will make a success of our American system of democracy.

The function of our group of social sciences is to

describe the operations of society as they have actually occurred. As Professor Becker puts it in his preface to *Modern History*, "It is only by remembering something of the past that we can anticipate something of the future. Please note, he says, I did not say *predict* the future. We cannot predict the future—but we can anticipate it."¹ The difference between predict and anticipate contains the gist of the explanation as to why many social science teachers do not want to have this group of subjects made the "core of the curriculum." Life is too much like a seamless garment. We would all be ready, however, to accept Professor Giddings' teaching that "the ultimate aim of all society is to produce, *social personality*." But what may be the proper objective of all society in its limitless activities can hardly be assumed by a small group of social science teachers.

Nevertheless, all the subjects in our group should, and do, contribute to the production of social personality. Social personality may have an academic or erudite sound but its meaning is simple. It is nothing more than the predominant and controlling quality of the good citizen—the person who lives in cooperative relations with his fellows.

History as it is now taught deals with the actual experiences, political, economic, and social which human society has passed through. Civics, economics, and political science represent more intensive studies of particular phases of human experience and embody a statement of general principles derived from the several studies.

When we say that the teaching of history has been socialized in recent times, we mean that the facts to be studied have been selected with the purpose of portraying the entire life of the people—all the people. We believe neither in a dictatorship of the proletariat nor of the aristocracy. Our American concept of the function of the public school is to portray the development of American democracy—"The American Dream," if you please.

There is another reason for the use of the term "social sciences" with emphasis this time not on *social* but on *sciences*. The amazing revolutions brought into modern life through the application of scientific knowledge has suggested that man has been laggard in applying scientific method to the improvement of social relations. The use of the term "social sciences" suggests therefore, that we are determined to follow scientific methods in education so that we may produce a better type of citizenship.

H. C. Morrison says that "An educated person is one who knows what to do and is inclined to do it."² The use of the term "social sciences" means that we are not only going to undertake to find out and to teach the facts of social relationships, but more important, we are going to try to furnish the motive power to action.

¹ Carl Becker, *Modern History* (New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1933), Preface.

² H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1931).

Supervised Study in the Social Sciences

LEVERA FOWLER HUME

Nashville Public Schools, Nashville, Tennessee

Supervised study is a plan of school procedure in which individual students are directed in their study according to their needs and under conditions conducive to self-reliant purposeful endeavor. It has gained prominence in the educational world during the last three decades.

The purpose of this study is to summarize some of the literature on supervised study in the field of the social sciences. The material offered is arranged under two headings—Plans for Carrying on Supervised Study, and Merits of Supervised Study as Determined by Investigation. This is followed by Conclusions Concerning Supervised Study in the Social Sciences.

Plans for Carrying on Supervised Study

In his chapter on "Supervising the Study of History" Hall-Quest, an early exponent of this method, points out some prevailing weaknesses in teaching history and gives lists of essential dates in American history, mental processes involved in learning, directions to pupils for studying and a plan for class procedure in supervised study. In a chapter on "Supervising the Study of Civics," he suggests some group assignments, a method for developing civic information, and an illustrative outline of class contributions resulting from such study.¹

A list of eight different plans for supervised study

was supplied by H. C. Hines² in 1917 and W. A. Brownell³ added the others in 1925, to complete his list of fourteen, as follows:

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Special study hall | 9. Supervised home-study |
| 2. Conference | 10. University plan (Chicago) |
| 3. DeKalb plan | 11. Graduated plan |
| 4. Pueblo plan | 12. Study coach |
| 5. Daily extra period | 13. Review groups |
| 6. Differential plan | 14. Printed directions |
| 7. Double period | |
| 8. Divided period | |

In 1919, Bessie L. Pierce reported "An Experiment in Individual Instruction in History" in which she taught by aid of mimeographed sheets containing unit assignments. She checked the paper of pupil with the most advanced assignment and then permitted that pupil to hear another over the work approved by the teacher. The second child checked another child's paper and so on with the better class members assisting in the supervision. The teacher was thus enabled to devote more time to the less efficient pupils.⁴ Howard E. Wilson explains the use of worksheets in supervised study and points out some advantages to both pupils and teachers.⁵ In *Teaching the Social Studies*, a chapter on supervised study enumerates some technical procedures with some of its aims, then discusses the advantage of using worksheets.⁶

Mabel E. Simpson describes a supervised study scheme used in the seventh and eighth grades.⁷ She used fourteen units of instruction in classes divided into superior, average and inferior groups with maximum, average and minimum assignments. The unit of recitation was divided into daily review, assignment and study of assignment in periods of ninety minutes. Examination lessons followed the units of instruction to test the memory, judgment, scope of information and pupil's preferences.

In the West High School of Minneapolis the average time given in an hour period to supervised study was twenty-five minutes, usually during the last part of the period.⁸ However, there was considerable variation from day to day and with a tendency to use a longer time for supervised study on Mondays and less time on Fridays.

A discussion of "Directed Study: Materials and Means" gives aims and methods of supervised study and five examples of objective assignments for history and government.⁹ The supervision is to be given by the teacher who sees the work of each pupil, helps those who need help most and assists those who request aid.

Another article "A Directed-Study Plan for Town High Schools," explains the use of a schedule of six, fifty-five minute periods daily with each teacher having three recitation and three study classes.¹⁰ The pupils' schedule required two recitation periods daily,

according to an A and B two-day plan. Pupils were not allowed to miss recitations but might shift study periods if teachers thought best.

A supervised study cooperative scheme on the basis of "deficiency in reading ability is root cause of difficulties in history study" is reported by George A. Andrews.¹¹ Standard tests in history reading were given the first week of the school year, in grades 7-14. All students below median standing were advised that they needed improvement in reading and instructors were asked to give special help to those in lower quartile. A special class was taught by a primary grade teacher who used methods similar to those required for young children beginning to read. Word study drill was taught in a special class by an English teacher. Social science instructors were held responsible for spelling, definition, and vocabulary; grade penalties in history were given for composition faults in papers and required notebook work.

Almon R. Buis states that the teacher's work is finding and applying the means whereby the pupil may be in a better position to help himself.¹² He lists three reminders: Students must make endeavor for power of sustained attention and concentration; students must interpret the printed page in terms of their own understanding; students must learn that achievement comes through effort. He presents a list of twenty-four suggestions to students for improving their study habits, to be given in mimeographed copy to each student, explained, applied in study periods and checked to ascertain whether suggestions are being followed.

Supervised correspondence study is being used through coöperation between institutions offering such courses and high schools in which students are enrolled. The institution offering the course supplies material, directions for studying and preparing the assignments and evaluates all or part of the work done while the high school instructors provide periods in regular school day for study of extension courses, supervise pupils' study and supply visual aids or supplementary materials. An article on "Practice in Citizenship through Supervised Correspondence Study" illustrates a course in orientation and guidance used in Nebraska to provide practice in citizenship.¹³ Wray H. Congdon explains that supervised correspondence study provides an opportunity for students to enrich their courses of study,¹⁴ and a government bulletin characterizes instruction by mail as "A Potential Economy."¹⁵

Merits of Supervised Study as Determined by Investigation

An investigation, made as early as 1913-1914, in high school history to determine the relative merits of class recitation and supervised study resulted in

greater improvement in average grades in the supervised study group.¹⁶

Supervised study in the junior high school of Muncie, Indiana, for the purpose of teaching children the use of reference books, use of assignment outlines and the ability to make outlines, resulted in children's learning to depend on themselves because they had acquired tools necessary for history study.¹⁷ A comparison of final grades in classes taught by the recitation method and supervised study method indicated that the individual class had prepared lessons more thoroughly than the group class.¹⁸ An experiment in Wisconsin high schools with a pair of classes in United States history showed slightly better results for the recitation group, while in modern history the results favored supervised study.¹⁹

A study was made of supervised and unsupervised groups in seventh grade and high school history in 1927.²⁰ Over a period of nine weeks, sixty minute periods were divided into thirty minutes for discussion and thirty minutes for supervised study in one group and forty-five minutes for recitation and fifteen minutes for unsupervised study in another group of high school history. In seventh grade history both groups were given the same amount of time and covered the same amount of work over a period of ten weeks. There was a significant gain in favor of the supervised-study group in high school and a small gain in favor of the supervised-study group in the seventh grade.

William A. Brownell studied twenty-six supervised study experiments and found that pupils whose efforts are directed acquire more information than those with no instruction in study.²¹ Pauline Yates Long compared three methods of teaching history, the informal lecture method, the eclectic method and the supervised study method.²² The study ran three months with three groups in tenth grade European history. The supervised study method produced the best results in terms of test scores.

"A Comparison of Teaching Procedures in Short and Long Class Periods" showed that in forty-eight short period classes, from forty to forty-five minutes, supervised study was used 8.2% of the periods while in fifty-two long period classes, from fifty-five to sixty minutes, 21.1% of time was given to supervised study.²³ 48.2% of short period classes and 55% of long period classes reported attainment of desired ends of supervised study.

Two studies reported in 1928²⁴ and 1930²⁵ respectively, to determine the time order preferable for supervised study indicated that the study-recitation sequence is superior to that of the recitation-study plan for the social sciences. The S-R sequence had greater superiority for high school grades than for the seventh and eighth grades and neither was peculiarly favorable for more or less capable teachers.

In a study to determine the most important instructional difficulties of history teaching, Wirth found that of 1417 teachers from thirty-eight states and the District of Columbia forty-six used the supervised study plan only and that 185 used supervised study with some other form of teaching.²⁶

Conclusions Concerning Supervised Study in the Social Sciences

A survey of the literature on supervised study in the social sciences during the past three decades, presented in the foregoing summary suggests the following conclusions:

1. That plans used in carrying on supervised study in the social science field vary from the slight supervision of study afforded by voluntary conferences to complete direction of all-day programs.
2. That classroom procedure in supervised study usually consists of using about one-half of a period for recitation and assignment and the other half for supervised study.
3. That supervised study is more effective in long class periods than in short class periods.
4. That in the divided class period for supervised study, the study-recitation sequence is better than the recitation-study plan.
5. That the use of mimeographed sheets of rules and suggestions for studying improve pupils' study habits.
6. That work sheets aid both pupils and teachers in the supervised study procedure.
7. That supervised correspondence study offers opportunity for students to take courses not available in their high schools.
8. That supervised study is more effective at the upper grade levels than in the seventh grade.
9. That classes taught by supervised study methods show an advantage in test grades.
10. That many instructors are using the supervised study.

¹⁶ A. L. Hall-Quest, *Supervised Study* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916).

¹⁷ H. C. Hines, "Supervised Study in the Junior High School," *School and Society*, VI (November 3, 1917), 518-522.

¹⁸ William A. Brownell, *A Study of Supervised Study*, Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, Bulletin Number 26 (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, April 17, 1925).

¹⁹ Bessie L. Pierce, "An Experiment in Individual Instruction in History," *Historical Outlook*, X (February, 1919), 86-87.

²⁰ Howard E. Wilson, "Worksheets as Aids in Supervised Study," *Historical Outlook*, XX (October, 1929), 287-291.

²¹ Della G. Fandler and Claude C. Crawford, *Teaching the Social Studies* (Los Angeles: C. C. Crawford, 1932). See also Arthur C. and David H. Bining, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1935), Chapter VI.

²² Mabel E. Simpson, *Supervised Study in American History* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1918).

⁸ Leo J. Bruechner, "A Survey of the Use Made of the Supervised-Study Period," *School Review*, XXXIII (May, 1925), 333-345.

⁹ C. C. Hillis and J. R. Shannon, "Directed Study: Materials and Means," *School Review*, XXXIV (November, 1926), 668-678.

¹⁰ James T. Hamilton, "A Directed-Study Plan for Town High Schools," *School Review*, XXXV (June, 1927), 448-451.

¹¹ George A. Andrews, "Improving History Teaching in High School and Junior College," *Historical Outlook*, XXII (October, 1931), 292-294.

¹² Almon R. Buis, "Helping Pupils to Study High School History," *Historical Outlook*, XXII (October, 1931), 274-276.

¹³ Knute O. and Lois P. Broady, "Practice in Citizenship through Supervised Correspondence Study," *Educational Method*, XIV (November, 1934), 89-92.

¹⁴ Wray H. Congdon, "What Is 'Supervised Correspondence Study?'" *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, X (December, 1935), 217-221.

¹⁵ Walter H. Gaumnitz, *High School Instruction by Mail: A Potential Economy*. Bulletin Number 13, United States Office of Education (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933).

¹⁶ E. R. Breslich, "Supervised Study as a Means of Providing Supplementary Individual Instruction," *Thirteenth Yearbook*, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, 67-69.

¹⁷ Hallie Farmer, "Supervised Study of Eighth Year History," *Historical Outlook*, X (February, 1919), 85-86.

¹⁸ Bessie L. Pierce, "An Experiment in Individual Instruction

in History," *Historical Outlook*, XX (October, 1929), 86-87.

¹⁹ W. W. Brown and J. E. Worthington, "Supervised Study in Wisconsin High Schools," *School Review*, XXXII (October, 1924), 603-612.

²⁰ Francis Shreve, *Supervised Study Plan of Teaching*. Doctor's Dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers. (Richmond, Virginia: Johnson Publishing Company, 1927.)

²¹ William A. Brownell, *A Study of Supervised Study*, Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, Bulletin No. 26 (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, April 17, 1925).

²² Pauline Yates Long, "Comparison of Methods of Teaching History." Masters' Thesis, George Washington University, 1928. Reported by W. G. Kimmel. "A Review of Some Reports of Controlled Experimentation in Methods of Teaching in the Social Studies," *First Yearbook* of the National Council for Social Studies (Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1931), 145-157.

²³ Leonard V. Koos and Oliver L. Troxel, "A Comparison of Teaching Procedure in Short and Long Class Periods," *School Review*, XXXV (May, 1927), 340-353.

²⁴ Harl R. Douglass, "Experimental Investigation of the Relative Effectiveness of Two Plans of Supervised Study," *Journal of Educational Research*, XVIII (October, 1928), 239-245.

²⁵ John G. Fowlkes, "Shall Supervised Study Follow or Precede the Recitation?" *Nation's Schools*, VI (July, 1930), 82-86.

²⁶ Fremont P. Wirth, "Classroom Difficulties in the Teaching of History," *Historical Outlook*, XXII (March, 1931), 115-117.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

Head, Social Studies Department, Girard College, Philadelphia

HITLER, AN ENIGMA

Under the title, "The Riddle of Hitler," Professor Stephen H. Roberts of Sydney University, Australia, analyzes the personality of Hitler, in *Harper's Magazine* for February. Dr. Roberts, professor of modern history, traveled eight thousand miles back and forth over Germany, interviewing Hitler and his intimates, as well as Germans from all walks of life, seeking the reaction of Germans.

Dr. Roberts believes that Hitler is primarily a dreamer, a visionary. It seems to him a marvel that such a person could rise to power in this age of science, publicity, and debunking: "The fate of mankind rests on the whimsy of an abnormal mind."

"Hitler undoubtedly has a very complex personality. People like Stalin and Mussolini are much simpler—easier to analyze and understand; but there is something elusive about Hitler. . . . The two most popular views picture him either as a mere ranting stump-orator or as a victim of demoniacal possession." The complexity of Hitler's personality is described in a wealth of terms. Hitler, says Dr. Roberts, believes utterly in the ideas he happens to be talking about and is therefore convincingly honest, and of course not at all consistent. He is unpredictable. He is a mystic, a dreamer, an idealist, a simplist, mentally

confused, intuitive, and emotional. He has a terrific power of self-delusion; he is law-abiding, bashful, indecisive, procrastinating, temperamental, restless, tortured by imaginings and confused thoughts. He has no interest in games, women, or knowledge, and is polite, courteous, punctilious, a gripping orator, and lives simply.

"The Hitler myth is the dominating fact in German life today. Indeed, he sees himself no longer as a person but as the Crusader who has captured the Holy City—the embodiment of a nation—the living and inspired voice of Germania—*Der Führer* in the most mystical sense of that word—and must one ultimately add: *Der Führer-Gott*?"

WHAT PRICE ECONOMISTS?

In a radio speech delivered recently by Sir Josiah Stamp, the noted British scholar, the worth of the economist was pointed out. "Does the economist do more harm than good? What an absurd question. If you hadn't got him, you would have debased coinage, unwise banking, crazy credit, unsound public finance, trade crises all the time, tariffs worse even than today ruining the productive powers of the world under the guise of promoting the interests of little bits of it, . . . in fact every generation would

repeat every economic folly . . . committed through the ages. Only the experience accumulated and expounded by the economist, and only the struggling effort to apply its lessons to new conditions, free from wishful thinking, can keep the world from making all the old mistakes. The business man or his government will put on a duty to protect a particular market and succeed, but fail altogether to reckon with the effect on the export trade . . . or to raise [wages] in an industry, and let it open to competition which kills it . . . or enter a restriction scheme to maintain prices, which encourages the outsider to flood the market. There is no such thing as a simple direct effect in economic life without numerous reactions and readjustments often more far-reaching and important than the direct effect. The economist's job is the unpopular one of warning you about them."

THE WORD REVOLUTION BEGINS

Stuart Chase's article on "The Tyranny of Words," in the November *Harper's*, the first of a series on semantics which was concluded in the January issue, has provoked much comment even before his book on the subject came off the press. In *Events* for January Dr. Beard suggests that, although semantics is no discovery of today, the enthusiastic advertisement of it by Mr. Chase may be the sign of the beginning of a revolution. In "The Word Revolution Begins," Professor Beard reviews the recent developments in the field of semantics and points out the growing awareness of its social meaning, by more types of people.

THE TEACHER AS POLITICIAN

In *School and Society* for December 25, 1937, Carl Bode calls the teacher from the cloistered contemplation suggested in part at least by Professor Mowat to enter the hurly-burly of political life. The teacher, with no "direct economic motive to twist his aim," can be of real service to the community if he joins a political organization and actively takes part in its work. And it will teach him much that cannot be learned in classrooms. The teacher can make a socially better evaluation of issues and courses of action which face his organization. He can help to raise the general level of thinking, because he is a professionally trained person.

THE EAST—NEAR AND FAR

Asia for January surveys the modern Near East from many angles and exposes it as a restless, changing region which is verging upon a new birth. Teachers, especially of geography and modern history, will find this unusual presentation most welcome.

Before settling down to this presentation, *Asia* publishes an article by Lieutenant-Commander Hiramoto, "Our Little Visits to Nanking," which tells graphically how the capital of China was bombed. Pearl

Buck comments upon Commander Hiramoto's article, biting and bitterly: "When I contemplate this military mind I know it is the only thing which the human race has truly to fear." That the Japanese do not monopolize this dangerous thing was evidenced recently by Italian descriptions of air raids in Spain and Ethiopia.

In February, *Asia* carries a special 24 page section on the Far East entitled, "The War, and What Next." European, Eastern, and American publicists contribute to it.

PERU

The second of the series of articles on South America currently appearing in *Fortune* (January) deals with Peru. It is profusely illustrated. Peru is called "a miniature of South America in its social and economic problems" and "the most South American of South American countries."

"CURRENT HISTORY"

Beginning with its first issue for the new year, *Current History* is greatly enlarged and includes a pictorial section on current history. Two new departments make their appearance, one called "Latin-American Notes," giving a picture of current history in Latin America, and the other, "Letters to the President," which reprints some of the more pertinent letters addressed to the President.

Several of the articles in the January issue are of particular interest to those in the secondary school field. Joseph Jastrow, in "The Wise Man's Burden," issues a strong warning to the nation about the menace as well as the burden of the underprivileged, both economically and biologically. Much that he says will be significant for pupils studying social problems. Mr. H. G. Wells has several startling things to say in his article on "Palestine in Proportion," where he suggests that both the history and the contribution of Palestine have been very much overemphasized. Carleton Beals, long intimate with Latin-American affairs, in "Caesar of the Caribbean," describes the recent massacres of the Haitians in Santo Domingo and pictures General Trujillo as a monster. It seems to the author that events on the island of Haiti are significant of the further penetration of Naziism in Latin America.

TAXES

In the *New Republic* for December 29, 1937, January 5 and 19, 1938, Harold M. Groves discusses the question of "What to Do About Taxes." He is on the staff of the University of Wisconsin and has served both on the state tax commission and in the legislature. As one with personal experience and as a student of finance his study is practical and realistic. He agrees that the legitimate demands upon government today far exceed the yield of taxes under present

arrangements. Many loopholes through which to escape taxes of course can be and should be plugged up. Moreover, in this country, the mass of people who are not very poor or very rich have not yet really borne the share of taxes they could bear. "Persons of moderate incomes are treated generously under our income tax not because they lack ability to pay, but because there are so many of them and because they resent direct taxes; and because they will, so it is thought, punish at the polls any administration that imposes additional direct-tax burdens upon them." He then describes various loopholes in our tax structure. A special study is made of the undistributed-earnings tax, the capital-gains tax, and the excess-profits tax, and at the close of the series of three articles Professor Groves presents a ten-point tax program.

Supplementing one part of this study is the article in *Harper's* for February, on "The Undistributed Profits Tax." It is written by Maurice Wertheim, former owner of *The Nation* and a New York banker. Mr. Wertheim proposes that the tax be abolished but that a penalty be provided for any business which unreasonably retains earnings in order to avoid a surtax.

On some of the points made in these articles there is substantial agreement by John T. Flynn who, in so many cases, has been favorably inclined toward the New Deal (see below).

In *Fortune* for January the second of two articles on taxes is devoted largely to the question of the relation of the national system of taxation to industry. The point is stressed that business must get used to national taxes. In this country, until the World War, excises and tariffs supplied most of the national income. Now they cannot, and our business men are learning what Europeans had long known about taxes. Substantially, this is in agreement with the position taken by Mr. Groves already mentioned and Mr. Coyle mentioned below and one taken by people who are not altogether on the same side of the economic fence.

GOVERNMENT PLANNING—A DANGEROUS EXPERIMENT?

There seems to be less assurance now about the success of the government in a program of planning against depressions than there was a half-dozen years ago. This doubt seems to have become more pronounced as the present recession has gathered headway. In *Fortune* for January, the eleventh quarterly survey of the state of the nation is presented. It covers unemployment, taxes, the farm problem, the problem of wage levels, and the questions of leisure activities. With this fairly dark picture in mind it is interesting to turn to John T. Flynn's "This Setback in Business," in *Harper's* for January, and L. M. Graves' "The Folly of Industrial Planning," in *Harper's* for Febru-

ary. Mr. Flynn gives his reasons for the business depression which closed the year 1937, discusses the causes of the ups and downs in the business world, and explains why he believes we now need a carefully planned deflation based upon reduced prices, as the way in the long run best to promote the national welfare. His analysis is cold comfort to business men and yet may seem to smack of Toryism to many New Dealers. In his opinion it is not improbable that an even worse depression than the recent one can soon come about.

Mr. Flynn argues for deflation. He holds that the country would be better served if attempts to fix prices ceased and if debt stabilization were postponed until more favorable times. Then, with a lightened tax burden, there very likely would result a larger and more active purchasing power in the nation.

Mr. Graves is not opposed to planning as such, but, he maintains, it requires knowledge, statistical and otherwise, at present almost impossible to obtain. Without such knowledge planning is likely to result in dangerous rigidity. Mr. Graves is an economist who formerly served in the Planning Division of the AAA. But the fact that government management of industry is not likely to attain the social objectives of economic activity more effectively than private management does not mean a reversion to laissez-faire. Mr. Graves concedes that even greater government regulation of business is now necessary.

In this connection the article in *The Journal of the N.E.A.* for January on "Federal Charters and Licenses for Corporations" is pertinent. It is a reprint of part of a radio address of Senator O'Mahoney of Wyoming defending his bill now before the Senate "to provide a national system of licenses and charters for corporations engaged in commerce among the states." The senator explains why such a federal measure has become necessary, the purposes and nature of his measure, why it will not put government even further into business, and why we need "a national rule for national commerce." What he has to say will be of use to classes in social problems.

The Congressional Digest for January is devoted to "The Question of Regional Planning." The meaning of the term, region, is explained by a statement from the National Resources Committee, the problem is presented, and a summary is given of government plans and measures. The question discussed pro and con—a regular feature of *The Congressional Digest*—is, "Should Congress Pass the Administrative Regional Planning Bill?"

BUSINESS IS SPEAKING

Two men, S. H. Walker and Paul Sklar, who had been closely associated with advertising, describe in the issues of *Harper's* for January, February, and March the efforts of business to state its case to the

public and win back the confidence lost during the depression. Big Business is explaining to the public its view of the social value, as well as the more narrowly business value of economic activity, a view in harmony with the classical economics of Adam Smith. Messrs. Walker and Sklar tell how the big advertising men and the commercial propagandists performed the task of establishing friendly relations with the public and the means used in its performance, with special emphasis upon the radio. Then they tell in considerable detail how motion pictures are being used in the campaign of educating the public and conclude with an account of several campaigns and the publicity devices used in them. As a social phenomenon involving the use of all the modern means of communication in attempts to reach a nation, the conscious effort of American business to sell itself no less than its products is well worth the study.

THE AMERICAN WAY

This is the title of the prize-winning essay by David Cushman Coyle which is the leader in the February number of *Harper's*. It undertakes to restate and reinterpret American traditions and ideals. The American Way is, basically, the way of freedom. But the liberty of frontier days and of the days of the small farmer and business man in a sparsely settled country where automatic machinery and high-speed communication were unknown is not the liberty of the modern age. Insecurity now threatens liberty, and superorganization entangles it. Freedom of opportunity, moreover, takes on a new aspect. Free speech is not the same in an age of wage-earners as it was in an age of small, independent farmers. Even states rights tend to dwindle. Only the people exercise more and more direct control over the central government.

"The troubles of America come chiefly from the fact that technology advances faster than social and legal adjustment." In this connection, Mr. Coyle said earlier that "the solution of our most serious problems . . . waits for the people to be willing to make sacrifices and to pay taxes on such a scale as to make our present laws effective."

How, then may freedom flourish in an age of science and technology? "Science and technology depend on initiative and ingenuity, and depend, therefore, on freedom." Yet science and technology foster over-centralization, where an error at the center can victimize a people. "The curse of over-centralization is the relaxation of initiative that follows strict discipline. In a dictatorship the men at the top tend to govern by fear, and the men lower down react by making their superiors decide all questions that might lead to trouble." So here is a dilemma. "Science and invention are not hostile to freedom. The pleasant fruits of science and invention can be enjoyed only

by a free people using a strong central government as their agent for controlling the machine."

"What," asks Mr. Coyle, "is liberty in a world of machines and corporations?" He finds the answer in a strong, democratically controlled government which protects each citizen against all threats to his integrity. Through such a democratically controlled government three accomplishments are possible and are consonant with American traditions: (1) The five major elements of our economic world—the classic capitalistic structure; the newer finance-capitalism; the growing area of public services; the widening circle of private non-profit activities such as education, research, and welfare work; and the expanding coöperative movement—can be kept in balance by the hand of the government so that no one will dominate the others, and yet regimentation can be avoided; (2) People must learn to pay enough to make existing laws effective against trusts, to regulate railroads, stock exchanges, and the like, to establish security legislation and conservation programs, and so forth; and (3) Technological advance must be given freedom, yet it must not grow wild through lack of control. Some centralizing control is necessary, but not tight supervision. One is reminded of John Dewey's thought that the scientist, while free to pursue his inquiries, is subject along with all other scientists to the tests of established scientific law and procedures, a combination of freedom and authority in which each makes possible the life of the other. Mr. Coyle, it would appear, is asking that the thinking of yesterday which grew out of conditions then should now be adjusted to function amid the conditions of our own day. Such a mental lag is inevitable in any changing age, and Mr. Coyle's analysis is helpful in opening our eyes to it.

In later issues of *Harper's* other essays will be printed on The American Way.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AT WORK

As an illustration of some of the things Mr. Coyle says, the description of "Collective Bargaining at Work" which is presented in the *Atlantic Monthly* for January by Sumner H. Slichter is interesting. Dr. Slichter is professor of business economics at the Graduate School of Business Administration of Harvard University. He describes an actual case of the workings of collective bargaining, showing the problems involved, the conflict of interests, the difficulties in the way of reaching mutual understandings, and the advantages and disadvantages of collective bargaining. His account is distinctly in conformance with The American Way, the democratic way.

THE COLLAPSE OF CONSCIENCE

Norman Angell, as was pointed out in this department in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* for January (p. 39),

expressed intense moral indignation against the democratic nations of the world today because of their cowardice in the face of dictatorships. A similar feeling is expressed against the nation in its own domestic affairs by J. Donald Adams, editor of *New York Times Book Review*. Writing in the January number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, Mr. Adams speaks from the heart and only after much searching of his thoughts. Individually, he says, we forget too quickly and we too readily condone conduct which is unethical. Was this not true in the Insull case? Should Senator Black have kept silent about his K.K.K. connections before the ratification of his nomination to the Supreme Court? Are our individual consciences too easy about matters of public concern? Mr. Adams names and specifies cases to show the weakening of American character, although this nation has "no corner in ethical disintegration." Much of the responsibility he would lay at the door of fascist and communist doctrines and conduct. "There is . . . no means of once more stiffening our moral fibre, except by the rekindling of faith and by the ready assumption of individual moral responsibility for individual acts. . . . Where personal conscience dies, there is no freedom."

A WORLD BRAIN ORGANIZATION

This is the title of the third of Mr. H. G. Wells' articles in the *Survey Graphic* (January). Here, in Mr. Wells' own words, is the substance of his thought. "Educationally we are still for all practical purposes in the coach and horse and galley state. The new university is just one more mental *gilt-coach* in which minds take a short ride and get out again. . . . All the new names of communicating ideas and demonstrating realities that modern invention has given us, have been seized upon by other hands and used for other purposes. . . . The showman got the cinema, and the government or the adventurers got the radio. The university teacher and the schoolmaster went on teaching in the classroom and checking his results by a written examination. It is as if one attempted to satisfy the traffic needs of Great New York or London or Western Europe by a monstrous increase in horses and carts and nothing else."

Knowledge is power, and scholarship increases knowledge, but power is in the hands of others, and dictators call the turn on the professors. The scholar "can increase knowledge which ultimately is power, but he cannot at the same time control and spread this power that he creates. It has to be made generally available if it is not to be monopolized in the wrong hands. There, I take it, is the gist of the problem of *World Knowledge* that has to be solved."

"Knowledge is still dispersed, unorganized, impotent in the face of adventurous violence and mass excitement. In some way we want to modernize our *World Knowledge Apparatus* so that it may really

bring what is thought and known within reach of all active and intelligent men." And so Mr. Wells proposes that there be set up a "World Encyclopedia Organization," with its own directorate and staff to be "a sort of mental clearing house for the mind, a depot where knowledge and ideas are received, sorted, summarized, digested, clarified, and compared. . . . A perpetual digest and conference on the one hand and a system of publication and distribution on the other."

HOW PUPILS LEARN ABOUT CURRENT AFFAIRS

In *School Review* for January, Mr. Claude C. Lamers of the Waterville (Minn.) High School summarizes a study of the "Sources of Pupils' Information on Current Affairs," which he made among the students in his own town. The radio was the most important source for news of affairs, with the newspaper second and the news-weekly a poor third. In his opinion the school radio has great possibilities for social-science classes, although it has been neglected, on the whole. No one yet, apparently, has made a study of the importance of the radio, "a present day phenomenon [which] deserves more than the mere passing reference it so often receives. . . . High-school instruction should not lag behind the 'march of time'."

SOCIAL SCIENCE WORKBOOKS

Professor Rolla M. Tryon, in the same issue of *School Review*, contributes a long article on "The Development and Appraisal of Workbooks in the Social Sciences." He sketches the history of the workbook movement and evaluates such books. He concludes that their pedagogical value has been overrated and expresses the thought that guide sheets and work sheets, together with tests, made by the teacher himself for his own classroom use, are superior to the workbook.

THE FUTURE OF OUR COUNTRY

The *Journal of the N.E.A.* for January, 1938 is one of those not infrequent numbers filled with thought-provoking material for teachers. Under the title, "The Future of Our Country," more than a dozen pages are devoted to a discussion of the 1937 report of the N.E.A. Committee on Social-Economic Goals of America, which appeared under the name of "Implications of Social-Economic Goals for Education." Ten goals are described: (1) Heredity strength, (2) physical security, (3) culture—skills and knowledges, (4) culture—values and outlooks, (5) an active, flexible personality, (6) suitable occupation, (7) economic security, (8) mental security, (9) freedom, and (10) fair play and equal opportunity. This carefully worked out, critical, summary of the report is well worth very careful consideration.

Reference has been made in this department on several occasions to the Educational Policies Commission. It has submitted its conclusions on a group of school problems, under the title, *Structure and Administration of Public Education*. It may be secured free from the Commission (1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.). In the January number of the *Journal of the N.E.A.* is a condensation of the Commission's report under these ten headings: (a) Scope of American education, (b) reorganization of units of attendance and administration, (c) education, a unique function of government, independent in control, administration, and finance, (d) coöperation with other social agencies, (e) participation of teachers in the formulation of educational policy, (f) the place of the responsible executive, (g) state responsibility for education, (h) state responsibility for school support and for stimulation of local initiative, (i) federal participation in school support, and (j) federal support without federal control.

MOVEMENTS FOR SOCIAL CHANGE IN THE UNITED STATES

During 1938, under the title, "Toward the American Commonwealth," *The Social Frontier* each month will present "a fresh authoritative statement of some important proposal for social change in the United States. Each contributor to this series has been asked to indicate the objectives toward which his particular movement is directed, the procedures by which its advocates intend to get there, and the place of the school and other educational agencies in these activities. Teachers should find this series helpful in increasing their understanding of the major programs that have been developed for the better organization of our national life." In the first essay of the series, Norman Thomas makes a critical study of socialism, "Socialism Re-examined: Its Ends and Means."

THE PIED PIPER OF TOLEDO

"The Pied Piper of Toledo" is an article in the January number of *Fortune* which tells how the Art Museum of Toledo is being used by the school children of the city for classes in drawing, painting, modeling, for art-history talks, music-appreciation courses, gallery tours, and so forth. The museum "draws 2,500 children every Saturday and 104 per cent of the population of Toledo in a year." Teachers will find suggestions here for the use of museums in their own towns.

LEGISLATORS

"Our State Legislators" form the subject for the January number of *The Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science (3457 Walnut Street, Philadelphia). The discussion by the many

contributors centers around personnel, the influences working upon legislators, the problems, the methods, and the processes of legislation, and the part played by legislatures in the governmental system. Twenty-six men and women from many walks of life contribute to the symposium. Many of the essays are within the grasp of twelfth grade pupils.

As a supplement, there are eight articles on various phases of our "Constitutional Rights," including such matters as the Amendments of the Constitution, private rights, due process, and civil liberties.

SHIPS, FROM DUGOUTS TO DREADNOUGHTS

In *The National Geographic* for January Captain Dudley W. Knox, under the above title, describes ships down the ages. Of the forty-three illustrations, sixteen are etchings by the artist, Norman Wilkinson. Etchings are an unusual feature in *The National Geographic* whose superb half-tones are so well known. A lot of self-control will have to be exercised by boys to keep themselves from carrying off Mr. Wilkinson's etchings to add to their treasures. Captain Knox's article will be welcome in every school library, and a worry to the librarian desirous of saving intact the library copy of the magazine.

SOME GEOGRAPHY NOTES

Education for January is given over to geography, with studies on aspects of subject matter, on maps, on the teaching of geography, on text books, and on the question of values. This is the third geography number, the first having appeared in January 1932 and the second in January 1935.

Dr. G. T. Renner of Teachers College, New York City, and E. L. Conrad of Brookline (Mass.) High School, writing on "Geographic Concepts in Secondary School Education" in *School and Society* for January 1, 1938, point out the need for geography as a subject of study in the high school and discuss several concepts which they believe should form the basis for such study on the secondary school level.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CONFERENCE

On March 11-12 the Fourteenth Annual Junior High School Conference will be held at New York University.

PAGEANT OF AMERICA

The Pageant of America lantern slide collection has been revised and a new catalog issued by the Yale University Press, 386 Fourth Avenue, New York City. A thousand slides reproduce the outstanding illustrations in "The Pageant of America"—maps, documents, charts, portraits, as well as paintings, drawings, and other illustrations. Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton of New York University writes a fore-

word to the catalog and makes many suggestions for the use of the slides in the classroom. The set furnishes an excellent means for bringing pupils into contact with our history.

ILLINOIS COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The first annual business meeting of the newly formed Illinois Council for the Social Studies will be held Saturday, April 2, 11 A.M., at Illinois State

Normal University, Normal, Illinois. The luncheon is to be at 1 P.M., and a program session at 2 P.M. All social studies teachers in the state of Illinois are eligible for charter membership upon payment of the annual dues of one dollar prior to or during the business meeting. Payment may be made to K. B. Thurston, 455 Columbia Place, East St. Louis, Illinois, or to the Secretary, Chicago Council for the Social Studies.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

A Continent Lost—A Civilization Won. Indian Land Tenure in America. By J. P. Kinney. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1937. Pp. xv, 349. \$4.00.

Mr. Kinney writes upon a topic of which he may speak with considerable authority. After serving over twenty-five years in the United States Indian Service, he tells the story of the unequal contest between red man and white for the control of the land. In view of his training and experience, one might expect the author to be prejudiced strongly in favor of the government he has served so long. Prejudiced he undoubtedly is, but he shows also an honest endeavor to be fair. Frankly admitting the frequent mistakes made by the government, Mr. Kinney adds, with entire truth, "many of the authors of books . . . have presented only one side of the story and have apparently had no clear understanding of the almost insuperable difficulties involved in the problem of adjusting the relationships between the white and red races in America" (p. ix).

An introductory chapter dealing with "Indian land tenure during the colonial period" is followed by a detailed consideration of the Indian land problem from 1776 to the present. This section is almost wholly documentary. Treaties, laws, court decisions, acts of Congress, and reports of committees are arranged in chronological order and quoted at great length. In this connection two points may be mentioned. (1) The writer is to be commended for his extensive use of fresh manuscript material in the files of the Indian Office, thus supplementing the printed sources. (2) It would have added to the breadth of view had more non-official sources been used: e.g., reports made by traders and missionaries, private letters and diaries. These show conditions that are frequently concealed by the careful wording of government documents. Even the latter present, with sufficient clarity, the history of a policy often honest enough but vacillating and dependent upon political

considerations and personal motives.

The title of the book—which reveals the author's belief—is too optimistic. Everyone will agree that the Indian has lost a continent, but there are not many trained ethnologists or historians who would concur in the opinion that he has won a civilization. On the contrary, he has lost much that was fine in his own cultural background. The Navajo and Pueblo, Naskapi and Sioux, Iroquois and Cherokee, once had distinctive characteristics. Each tribe had its love songs and cradle songs, war songs and funeral chants, creation myths and legends of infinite variety. Each tribe had an economic and social system adjusted to its peculiar needs. Over two centuries of contact with Europeans have resulted in the breakdown, if not the virtual destruction, of native culture. The civilization of the white man has ever been alien to the red man.

The book should have been given more careful proof-reading. Thus one reads "dusscussing" for "discussing" (p. 124); "repidly" for "rapidly" (p. 127); "assential" for "essential" (p. 140); and "reserations" for "reservations" (p. 148). Other mistakes could be cited, but the above list is sufficient to demonstrate a regrettable lack of typographical accuracy.

However, when all is said, the fact remains that the work fills a need in its particular field in such a manner that its importance cannot be questioned. It is a source-book that, by assembling widely-scattered material, must certainly prove to be a short-cut to much information necessary to every student of the American Indian.

A selective bibliography, a map of the Indian tribes of North America, a table of Indian land holdings from 1871 to 1933, an appendix showing allotted and tribal lands as of October 1, 1936, and an index conclude the volume.

ALBAN W. HOOPES

American Philosophical Society
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Sir Richard Grenville of the Revenge: an Elizabethan Hero. By A. L. Rouse, Fellow of All Souls College, Oxford. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937. Pp. 365: \$3.50.

Sir Richard Grenville has long stood in need of a biographer, a need which is now supplied in an eminently satisfactory manner. The product of years of painstaking research, this book is as charming as it is scholarly. The author, himself a west country man, portrays his hero sympathetically against the beloved background of Devon and Cornwall, yet he is without illusions as to either Grenville or his times. One sees here the Tudor gentleman on the make, naively identifying his own fortune with the cause of his country and of the Protestant religion, and exploiting with equal zeal an English abbey, an Irish estate, or a Spanish galleon. "The farther they went and the more they ravaged the more pious they became."

Many activities were crowded into Sir Richard's lifetime of less than half a century. He was member of Parliament, justice of the peace, and sheriff. He sought to prosecute the rather chimerical design of securing for England rich lands in the South Sea, lands which existed for the most part in imagination only. And he was identified, more directly than even Raleigh himself, with the genuine if unsuccessful attempt to colonize "Virginia." But it is as a fighting man that he will doubtless always be remembered. Raleigh and Tennyson have guaranteed that, whatever else may be forgotten, the last fight of the *Revenge* will endure as long as the English language. This epic of futile heroism is here retold in the light of newly discovered information, for the author has exploited the Spanish archives and learned what his enemies had to say about "Almirante Ricardo de Campo Verde gran cossario." But the story loses none of its romance in the retelling, and reflects as clearly as ever the bold, untamed spirit of the man who in so many respects epitomized his age.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Profits of War Through the Ages. By Richard Lewinsohn. Translated from the French *Les Profits de Guerre à travers les Siècles*, by Geoffrey Sainsbury. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1937. Pp. 287. \$3.00.

Throughout the ages the profits of war have accrued to the few directing spirits, to those who were able to supply the means of waging war, or to those greedy parasites who preyed upon the misfortunes of others, or were alert to grasp the passing chance. First came the generals, from Caesar to Marlborough, who obtained fortune as well as glory from their exploits. Later generals have not been among the principal beneficiaries of conflict, since their pride and ethics

have dictated only seemly gratuities as their portion.

As military profits declined those of financiers became more marked. Wars were more highly organized and more dependent upon capital. One has only to conjure up visions of the Medici, the Fuggers, and the Rothschilds to sense the possibilities. Some had their difficulties with governments, as Ouvrard under Napoleon, and others like the Rothschilds had to plot a difficult course through an international scene torn by war, often jeopardizing more than it promised. But generally there were great profits to be made from the extraordinary need of the war makers. A low percentage, too, might realize a great profit, as witness the large scale operations of the House of Morgan in the last war.

The favored position of those who supply armaments and other materials of war has been frequently pointed out. The treatment here emphasizes the eternal problem of whether supplies can be obtained better through a favored contractor or by governmental control. The latter is no new idea, for governments have shifted from one plan to another as each proved unsatisfactory. It is only recently that armament firms have acquired a dangerous power, until some have attributed to them the rôle of *deus ex machina*. Crisis conditions long gave them an overweening influence in extracting profits from desperate rulers and needy governments. Of late, however, they have found greater opportunities in peace time preparations. The author concludes that the modern armament firms do not want war, "but a precarious peace," for that provides the best market. The new morale curbs their war time profits, and war often jeopardizes their foreign trade.

Another class which comes in for analysis is that of the speculator. An awakened public has demanded an end of war profiteering. Speculators have received less blame for making war, but their profits gave them an unholy interest in its prolongation. While others sacrificed they have rolled in wealth, and the modern nation has decreed their doom. But as wars have become more complex the control of profits accruing from them has become more difficult. Only a thoroughly well organized society will be able to realize such an aim, and such a society should have little excuse for waging war. This illuminating survey of the history of war profits gives a much needed grasp of a very present situation.

MILTON W. HAMILTON

Albright College
Reading, Pennsylvania

Modern Politics and Administration. By Marshall E. Dimock. New York: American Book Company, 1937. Pp. xiii, 440. \$3.00.

The sub-title of Professor Dimock's book is "A Study of the Creative State." The author's point of

view in this remarkably objective volume may be said to be forecast in a quotation from Charles E. Merriam with which he has prefaced his first chapter: "The mould in which the modern state was cast is broken or is breaking."

It has always impressed the reviewer that authors of one volume treatises in political science are faced with an embarrassment of riches. An able presentation of this field is, as a consequence, adequate reason for hearty approval. We should like to extend to Professor Dimock congratulations on a very good piece of writing.

As the title indicates, this work is dealt with in two distinct sections. The first of these is Politics, and the second is Administration. Under the first section the author treats of such matters of importance as, The Functions of Government, Democracy in an Industrialized Country, The Lawmaking Process, Social Reform and the Constitution, and the Ends of the State. Of particular note are his comments on the much discussed present-day question of the judiciary as umpire; and, while Professor Dimock's concrete suggestions for the removal of certain basic faults in our present judiciary are probably not startlingly novel, they are nevertheless presented with more than usual cogency. In considering the Ends of the State, we should say that Professor Dimock is a bit more of a realist than Plato. The second section on Administration tends inevitably toward being more prosaic material. Here again, however, we are not met merely with an empty vastness of facts, but are treated to the author's serious consideration of such questions as Government Control of Economic Services and the reconciliation of efficiency and popular control under the heading of The Expert and the Layman. It is probably unfair to call the final chapter on The New Individualism the author's "Credo." Final chapters in works of this sort tend very often to be overviews—suffering alike from what has been excised and what has been retained. But here again, we find an almost philosophical treatment of "ends" of a regenerated state, all the more remarkable for a man of such a realistic turn of mind.

The underlying theme of the entire work can be said to be an admission of the fact that the rôle of government in our society has changed over a period of years from what was originally considered to be a function primarily of restraint and control, to what is now becoming more and more one of assistance and service. This is a tendency all too little admitted by the mass of those citizens voting for that government. If we read Professor Dimock aright, we do not think he would be averse to such changes in our constitutional sub-structure as would be most consonant with such a change. We believe that one of his main hopes is that the electorate may somehow be trained to the acceptance of these changes minus the partisanship

which usually produces more heat than light. We may wish that the author's hopes in this direction are prophetic. But, if he is correct in believing that our general thinking about government has lagged considerably behind government itself, we may be all the more certain that even more time will be necessary to the working out of the basic problems with which he has dealt.

RICHARD A. HUMPHREY

St. Paul's School
Garden City, New York

The American Mind. Edited by Harry R. Warfel, Ralph H. Gabriel, and Stanley T. Williams. New York: American Book Company, 1937. Pp. xx, 1520. \$4.25.

American Fiction Series. Edited by Harry H. Clark. New York: American Book Company, 1937. Consisting of *Modern Chivalry*. By Hugh H. Brackenridge. Pp. xlv, 808. \$3.00. *Ormond*. By Charles Brockden Brown. Pp. li, 242. \$2.10. *Satanstoe*. By James Fenimore Cooper. Pp. xli, 424. \$2.40. *Horse-Shoe Robinson*. By John Pendleton Kennedy. Pp. xxxii, 550. \$2.40. *The Yemassee*. By William Gillmore Simms. Pp. xlv, 406. \$2.40.

History teachers are finding much help in certain new material published primarily for English classes. The increasing interest in social and cultural history has caused a wider reading of American literature by historians in search of data on life and customs. However, much of early American literature is not only scattered but scarce and hard to get. These collections under review make easily accessible even to very small libraries a mass of valuable literature at low cost.

The American Mind is more than just another anthology, for it is much more inclusive than such works usually are. Not only does it contain the expected literary selections but it includes a much broader range of interest. There are many excerpts from religious writings, for religion has been one of the dominant interests of the American mind. Humanitarian plans and propaganda also are generously quoted. Economic writers are placed with their social and political contemporaries to round out the record of the variety of American thinking. The process of selection has been intelligent and within the covers of one very substantial volume is collected a wealth of stimulating writing representing the best of American intellectual achievement. The volume is divided into chronological sections, and suggestive introductory essays have been written for each period. Biographical sketches of the numerous authors add to the usefulness of the anthology. There are few teachers of the social studies who would not find the reading of this volume a stimulating experience.

The *American Fiction Series* is made up of reprints of old novels. Three of these are particularly valuable to teacher and student alike, namely *Satanstoe*, *Horse-Shoe Robinson*, and *The Yemassee*, for they are excellent stories and at the same time give a vivid picture of social life and historical episode in the colonial and revolutionary periods. *Modern Chivalry* is valuable for the student of social history but its burlesque qualities make it less useful to indiscriminating readers. *Ormond* is so formal and unreal that it has little for the historical student. No high school student can read *Satanstoe*, *Horse-Shoe Robinson*, or *The Yemassee*, without learning a great deal of history painlessly. It is hoped that this series will be enlarged; it is particularly valuable for collateral reading.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Primitive Intelligence and Environment. By S. D. Porteus. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. ix, 325. \$3.00.

Is there a racial basis of intelligence? Probably no question throughout human history has been more naïvely treated, more generally misunderstood. It is only in recent times that the question has become controversial for among both civilized and aboriginal peoples it always has been considered self-evident that neighboring or distant peoples who differed in political, cultural, linguistic or physical character (all still popularly confused under the term "race") were in one respect or another inferior in intelligence.

It is only since anthropologists began to understand the forces of culture that it was recognized that differences in physical appearances, in ways of life, in beliefs and thoughts, were not in themselves criteria for a determination of intelligence and that if there are differences in intelligence among the world's people they are those of degree, not of kind.

The major difficulty in attempts to make comparative studies is the lack of any satisfactory set of tests which can be applied fairly to all peoples. It was soon recognized that education and cultural influences play such prominent conditioning rôles that the intelligence tests regarded as satisfactory in our society could not be applied with any fairness to peoples with radically different cultural backgrounds.

Admitting that the commonly accepted psychological tests are unsatisfactory for comparative studies Professor Porteus, who has had a most extensive experience in applying such examinations to various native peoples, came to the conclusion that the Porteus Maze Test was sufficiently independent of cultural associations to permit the attaining of suggestive if not thoroughly accurate results. In 1929 he visited the aboriginal Australians and published his findings in *The Psychology of a Primitive People*, New York,

1931. (See reviews, by A. P. Elkin, "The Social Life and Intelligence of the Australian Aborigine," *Oceania*, Vol. III, No. 1, 1932; and O. Klineberg, *Race Differences*, New York, 1935.) The present volume contains the results of additional studies among the Bushmen of South Africa, Ainu of Northern Japan, Negritos, etc., all of whom did more or less poorly in the Porteus Maze Test. It is principally on the basis of these results, although with some hesitancy data on Strength of Grip, Goddard Form Board, Form and Assembling, Footprint and other tests are included, that the author comes to the conclusion that the peoples in question are inferior in intelligence. To draw such a momentous conclusion on the basis of such few data seems quite bold, especially since the value of the tests selected is by no means established for the purpose employed, and also because the tests were seldom applied to more than twenty-five individuals in each group of people. It is interesting to note the author's apologetic attitude in presenting his findings (p. 273) and his willingness to consider them as suggestive rather than conclusive. At the moment it would seem that he has demonstrated that some peoples are not as proficient as others in the Porteus Maze Test. What the implications from this finding should be is by no means obvious.

D. S. DAVIDSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Teaching the Social Studies. By Edgar Bruce Wesley. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937. Pp. xvii, 635. \$2.80.

Professor Wesley is well known to teachers of social studies as former president of the National Council for the Social Studies and as the author of numerous articles and contributions to research. His book on *Teaching the Social Studies* has accordingly been awaited with eagerness, and teachers will turn to it with the hope of finding answers to the various questions that seem of importance in the field. The degree of satisfaction that they find will vary with the nature of their anticipations.

Slightly more than half of the book—the second half—is devoted to practical advice on methods and topics related to methods. In Part four, for example, the four chapters answer such questions as: What are the criteria by which to choose a textbook? What are the advantages and disadvantages of work books? What kind of books should be in the library? How should pictures and motion pictures be used? The contents of Part five are hard to classify. A brief chapter on "The Teacher" gives some comments on the courses that it may be as well to take, and contains in one paragraph an emphatic statement of the teacher's right and duty to deal with controversial issues. Succeeding chapters treat the learning process and the

importance of developing concepts of space and time, the reading program, the use of the community, and the use of current events. Save for a little theorizing about the rôle of words and concepts this material consists mostly of practical hints. Each topic treated as a separate entity; there is no clear unifying thread of thought. Part six of the book is entitled "Some Recognized Methods." In this section a general discussion of the rôle of method, which the author esteems as "one of the most fundamental aspects of education, and the central problem of teaching," is followed by hints on the compact information about some particular methods; the use of the textbook, questioning, the use of sources, units, problems, projects, etc.

It can scarcely be doubted that a young teacher would profit by a careful study of these chapters. The value of some sections, of course, will be a matter of dispute; this reviewer found the discussion "concerning methods" confusing rather than enlightening, and regrets that the teaching of history dominates the choice of examples and the treatment throughout the section. But in general this is a sagacious and balanced treatment of topics about which there is little to be said that is novel, but much that is worth saying because it is continually being overlooked in practice. A comparison with the treatment of similar topics in such well-known works as those of Johnson, Tryon,

and Bining does not reveal any such striking additions or improvements as to justify the supersession of those works. Bining's is fuller and gives more detailed suggestions for the application of methods in the classroom, and Johnson and Tryon are more stimulating in their discussions; for example, the present treatment of "The Teacher" is a meager substitute for that of Tryon. Doubtless Professor Wesley's summaries and advice will at points give more guidance than other works; his chapter on the informal lecture so appealed to the reviewer.

Experienced teachers, to whom methods present no serious problems, will look with more eagerness to the discussions in the first part of the book, and especially to the section on the making of the social studies curriculum. This reviewer must confess to some disappointment with these pages. The extensive treatment of the nature of the social studies and of the social sciences, the growth of the social studies curriculum and the influence of the national committee reports, supplies an abundance of information, but much of it is inert: it may increase knowledge, but does not enrich understanding. From the chapters on objectives, the selection of grading and organization of materials, and procedure for making a curriculum, the reader may obtain various lists of objectives, arguments for and against fusion, eleven principles of grading materials, fifteen techniques for the selec-



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tion of materials, twenty-two steps in the procedure of curriculum revision, all clearly stated, all of some possible use. But on the fundamental issues as to the purposes of social studies teaching and the adaptation of the curriculum to those purposes he will obtain only scattered hints. An excellent analysis of the report of the Commission on the Social Studies furnishes a basis of such a discussion, but the lead is not followed up. A sentence in the discussion of objectives contains the important statement: "The selection of objectives is an act of choice, and choice rests upon a philosophy, a sense of value" (p. 169), but this is followed merely by lists. Although in the following chapter a reference is made to the "desirability of having a direct and discernible connection between objectives and materials," there is little elsewhere to guide the teacher in the reconsideration of his purposes and in effecting this "direct and discernible connection." Principles of selection are disposed of in one paragraph.

"A full discussion of how the work of the teacher can be made socially effective would involve the whole philosophy of education," the author declares at another point (p. 184), but "any extended discussion of this problem would be inappropriate, at this point." On the contrary, surely nothing could be more appropriate, indeed indispensable. For social effectiveness is not a matter so much of influence on society at large as a question of the influence of experience in social studies on the pupil. Without knowing what kind of influence is desired, or how to make it effective, we debate forms of organization, selection of material, grading, methods and all other problems in abstraction, and we decide them by an arbitrary application of some unstated and uncriticised canon. Thus, in a formal discussion of fusion and subject matter organization, Professor Wesley gives a final vote for subjects: "Education is the process of seeing and understanding how to make distinctions . . . other forms such as integration, fusion, problems, and topics may have to be used until the pupils have attained a little more maturity, but the ability to recognize the validity of subjects still stands as the ultimate measure of understanding." It is to be feared that his silence on other values and his explicit statement of the "ultimate measure of understanding" will encourage some teachers of a "subject" to be well satisfied so long as they drill their pupils in the subject, and to see in "reorganization of the curriculum" nothing but an excuse for padding their syllabi with a few tid-bits collected from courses of study, reports, and other sources conveniently listed in this book.

This criticism must be modified by one important qualification. In no book on the subject is there available such a wealth of bibliographies as is offered here. Every chapter includes annotated references to books, and to magazine articles relevant to the subject

under discussion. Dr. Wesley may well claim that in providing these he has given to the reader the opportunity and the stimulus to develop his own philosophy, and has avoided the danger of foisting one upon him by an authoritarian presentation. In the case of students in college who may be directed to the study of these references, this should prove true. Few practicing teachers, however, will use these bibliographies, and from their point of view the book will be weakest at the point at which they most need strength.

Finally, it should be observed that though entitled quite generally *Teaching the Social Studies*, the book has very little to say to the elementary school teacher.

It cannot be claimed, then, that this work will give much guidance to the teacher who is seriously concerned in redirecting his practices and his relations with his pupils so as to meet their needs and their purposes and his responsibilities to society with more assurance and more skill. It will be of value, however, as a textbook or reference, for use in teacher-training institutions; it covers most of the traditional topics, affords a nodding acquaintance with the movements of the last decade, and avoids controversy.

HERBERT J. ABRAHAM

Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

Andrew Jackson, Portrait of a President. By Marquis James. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1937. Pp. 627. \$5.00.

Some years ago, Marquis James author of a very successful biography of General Sam Houston, turned his attention to Houston's great patron, Andrew Jackson. In 1933 he concluded a volume *Andrew Jackson, The Border Captain*, which told the story of Old Hickory's life down to 1822. Now appears the second volume which concludes the biography.

As the sub-title indicates, this section of the biography is concerned principally with Jackson's campaigns for the Presidency and with his career in that office. Also this is a portrait, not a history. Mr. James has kept strictly within the limits of his own devising. This volume is devoted solely to Andrew Jackson. It is a vivid portrait, Jackson's correspondence has been carefully studied and wherever possible Jackson speaks for himself in apt quotation. Furthermore, there is much about Jackson's immediate family, the numerous young people he befriended and especially about the adopted son, Andrew Jackson, Jr., who was such a burden and disappointment.

Certain spectacular episodes are dramatically and extensively recorded, notably the election of 1824, the Eaton affair, the break with Calhoun and the war against Biddle and the Bank of the United States. Certain of Jackson's friends and competitors like Eaton and Biddle are well-portrayed also. However, in general, Jackson is surrounded by figures who are

rather shadowy. If Mr. James could have spared more words for descriptions of Jackson's friends and enemies, we should be able to understand some of Jackson's actions better.

The biography is excellently written and is fortified by voluminous references relegated to the back of the book. It will make a very entertaining and useful reference work for teachers and provide "outside reading" which most students will enjoy.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Growth Of The American People. By Marcus W. Jernegan, Harry E. Carlson and A. Clayton Ross. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1937. Revised Edition. Pp. 862. Illustrated. \$2.08.

Yielding to the demands of the "new epoch" in which we are now living the authors believe that history must be rewritten for modern youth. Pointing out that the political, economic, and social changes have motivated our ideals and methods they propose to write American history from "a new point of view." Unlike many textbook writers they have written "to enable the student to understand how the present came to be, and to help him to act and think more intelligently in trying to solve current problems." Due to this desire two units are given to the narrative concerning America in the New Deal era, thus giving the volume an essence of modern America.

The chronological-topical scheme of organization is interwoven with the unit type. There appears in almost every unit evidence of emphasis on economic, social, and cultural factors more than on those purely political. This tends to offer the student a perspective of American civilization in each period.

Of special interest to the present-day student is the treatment of periods of economic chaos, with considerable attention given to agricultural and labor problems. These subjects are discussed from the angles of cause and effect. This reviewer was impressed with the impartial presentation of controversial questions. Surely the authors have accomplished their purpose in presenting them, so that the student might be led to think and arrive at independent conclusions.

Another unique feature is the space given to pointing out the characteristics and contributions of great American leaders in their respective periods.

At the end of each unit or chapter are listed "Selected Readings," "Questions on the Text," "Problem and Thought Questions," "Floor Talks," "Projects," "Debates," "Identification," "Map Work," and

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In the opinion of the reviewer this textbook is outstanding for its broad presentation of American history (not just another United States history) and the many educational features included within its covers.

HERMAN H. LAWRENCE

Senior High School
Middletown, Ohio

Realities of American Government. By Neal D. Houghton. New York. The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. xx, 789. Illustrated. \$1.80.

This new book in social science education stresses the study of government as it is; not as it was years ago. It is realistic in its theme, for it reveals the needs and problems of democratic government as it actually does operate.

The text is organized in four large divisions which follow the traditional order of presentation, beginning with the national government and moving downward through state government to local government. The scheme of organization is a commendable one. Part 1 (86 pages), "The Development of Our System of Government," deals with the general idea of origin of government, our origin and change in government, and the growth of political parties. Part 2 (282 pages), "Our National Government and Its Work," reveals the emphasis on present day government. Case studies based on recent legislation and procedures are used. Part 3 (199 pages), "Our State Governments and Their Work," shows how pressure influences the passing of state laws, and attempts made to improve state governmental procedure. Part 4 (171 pages), "Our Local Governments and Their Work," reveals the forces at work in local communities and the attempts made to improve local government.

There are 73 pages of teaching equipment. Dr. Houghton, wisely, has not imposed restrictions about the text. Local conditions, of course, may change the emphasis of certain activities. However, ample provisions for additional work is supplied by reference readings at the end of each chapter. Also, at the end of every chapter there is a list of questions, providing a review of the chapter. These questions provide an extension of study into broad fields of related interests. The author reveals a list of 377 books which might constitute a fine library on present day problems in American life and government. There are 175 illustrations in the book. Of these, 22 are full page pictures, maps or charts. The illustrations are, as a rule, photographs carefully selected for their educational value.

If we attempt to evaluate the work in the light of what the author outlines as his objectives, we must say that this volume splendidly meets the need for

which it was created. The book is scholarly, well written, and readable. Dr. Houghton expresses no personal bias. Criticism for criticism's sake is avoided. An effort is made to awaken in the student a thoughtful, challenging attitude towards the function of government always with a view in mind to bringing about improvements. The function of social science should be to prepare the student for willing and intelligent participation in the functioning of his government. Once the young people can see government as it really is—the largest business in our country—we may be able to get the true picture of government, its functions and services across to young people. Dr. Houghton in his text does carry this message to the reader. We recommend the book for its fine scholarship and judicious presentation of challenging material.

I. A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School
Mount Vernon, New York

American Political and Social History. By Harold Underwood Faulkner. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1937. Pp. xxii and 772. \$3.75.

Professor Faulkner's volume has been designed as a freshman college text, and as such it will probably accomplish its purpose. It is fairly well written; its language is simple and direct; and its illustrations and maps will be an attraction for most students.

The book has been written in five divisions. The first, only 91 pages in length, covers the entire colonial period of American history to the Revolutionary War. The second is devoted to the "Emergence of A New Nation," from the Revolution to the close of the Jeffersonian era. The remaining sections discuss the rise and development of "Nationalism and Sectionalism," the coming of "The Industrial Age," and the United States as "A World Power." The 40 page general bibliography, at the end of the volume, will be valuable in suggestions for further reading.

Issue might be taken with the author for his inclusion of the word "political" in the title of his volume, for certainly the great emphasis is on social and economic history. If the author must be labelled, he will undoubtedly fall in the rather elastic "liberal" school. It quickly becomes obvious, that his sympathies lie with Jefferson far more than with Hamilton. Yet he takes pains to be just to those of whom he disapproves.

There is much in the volume that can be questioned, both in fact and in interpretation, and the number of typographical and editorial errors, in both text and bibliography, is by no means small.

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Boston New York Chicago Atlanta San Francisco Dallas London

Europe in The Middle Ages. By Warren O. Ault. New York: D. C. Heath and Company. Revised Edition, 1937. Pp. 730. \$3.48.

This revised edition of a successful text incorporates "new material of a social and cultural nature," new maps, genealogical tables and a clearer organization of the subject matter. The author constantly manifests a secure knowledge of his material, and displays a genius in selecting the salient points and subordinating details to principles. The chapter "Feudal Civilization," is an excellent example of his presenting most complex and chaotic material so lucidly and even interestingly that an immature mind can comprehend it, and a ripe mind appreciate its thorough and brilliant treatment.

Professor Ault has the ideal point of view toward the Middle Ages, an attitude of judicial sympathy and understanding rather than the superficial position either of condescension or overenthusiasm. He also keeps the Middle Ages in focus with the rest of history, repeatedly showing what the medieval period inherited from the past and its basic relation to modern history. His book analyzes and describes a living era and not dead ages chopped up and arbitrarily sorted into pigeon holes. Consequently, his style is warm, fresh and often informal.

While this book is primarily intended for a college text, and a most clear, thorough, scholarly and inspir-

ing text, its simplicity and directness bring it within the comprehension of high school students also. Its abundant use of pertinent and interesting quotations from modern and medieval authors would make it a stimulating reference book for high school as well as college classes.

OSCAR G. DARLINGTON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Readings in Modern and Contemporary History.

Edited by Arthur N. Cook. (Century Historical Series.) D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1937. Pp. 361. Illustrated. \$2.50.

Since the publication of Robinson and Beard's *Readings* in 1908-1909, teachers of modern history have found collections of sources a valuable aid. Several such collections have been edited for the use of college classes, basing their appeal upon the choice of material and showing a decided preference for documentary or primary sources. The present volume is an exception, for the author has taken the great majority of his selections from writers of secondary works (Only twenty of the seventy-four selections can be classified as primary source material). He found that the students at Temple University, one thousand of whom were given the opportunity of criticizing his selection, preferred secondary material in their col-

lateral reading. This departure will no doubt arouse some debate among teachers.

Judgment of such a collection, however, must be based to a large degree upon the quality and scope of the selection. Here the editor must be commended for his inclusion of some of the best scholarly work of present day writers. There might be some objection that the more obvious works, with which the student might easily become familiar in the original, are included and more inaccessible material is not found. Then, too, the selections are often interpretive, rather than factual or illustrative, thus assuming the function of the textbook or the lecturer. To the reviewer, however, the most serious criticism is that seventy-four selections, grouped under thirteen heads, can scarcely be comprehensive enough for such a crowded period.

The book is profusely illustrated, but the effectiveness of some excellent pictures is lost through bad reproduction or by being too greatly reduced. The proof of a pudding is in the eating, however, and the use of such a collection in class work will be the test for this new departure in "Readings."

MILTON W. HAMILTON

Albright College
Reading, Pennsylvania

Story of America. By Ralph Volney Harlow. New York: Henry Holt and Company. 1937. Pp. 812. Illustrated. \$2.20.

In the author's own words, he "has tried to achieve in this presentation of American history a nice balance between the economic, social, and cultural activities of the American people and the political development." The material in this text, for senior high school students, has been carefully selected and well organized. The book is divided into eight units. At the beginning of each unit there is a preview and at the end of each unit, in addition to the summary, there are many activity materials which include Exercises in Historical Imagination; Topics for Reports, Discussions, and Debates; Map Studies; Suggestions for Making Graphs and Tables; Bibliography; and a Check List for Mental Review of Persons, Places, Events and Terms.

The book is well named, for it is truly a *Story of America*—a story which tells, in a very interesting manner, of our European heritage and of the development of our country right down to the present. Throughout the book there is an underlying challenge to high school students to appreciate this wonderful country of ours and to accept the problems as well as the opportunities that exist.

There are splendid illustrations and many excellent maps, for the author believes that "geography and history are inseparable." His emphasis upon the importance of geographical environment certainly helps to make the book much more valuable than one

which is lacking in this respect. The *Story of America* will certainly appeal as an excellent text to high school teachers and students. This reviewer was especially impressed with the first chapter, "The Living Past," and believes that every history teacher would find it well worth reading.

BETTY McCORD

Darby Senior High School
Darby, Pennsylvania

School and Life. By M. E. Bennett and H. C. Hand. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937. Pp. xiii, 185. Illustrated. \$1.24.

This book is the first of a series in which the authors present guidance as a continuous process for students. The student is introduced to a recognition of his problems and the major issues involved. To enlist the students' efforts many interesting problems are given to him. The wide varieties of activities allows for adaptation to individual needs.

The book is organized in three large divisions. The scheme is very well planned. Part 1 (58 pages) "Living in School" deals with the innumerable perplexities associated with finding one's way around the new school; with acquainting oneself with rules, regulations, and standards of conduct; and with selecting and making new friends. Part 2 (70 pages) "Learning to Learn" reveals how to take good notes; how to study; how to think; and how to use the library facilities to the best advantage. Part 3 (24 pages) "Evaluating and Planning" deals with how growth is measured; how to plan one's courses and student activities; and the like.

This book is commended for its scheme of organization, readability, and good use of illustrations. The authors, at the end of each chapter, suggest a reading list for further exploration. The print is good and the work coherent. Teachers and guidance counselors will find this book of practical value in orienting the pupils to school activities.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School
Mount Vernon, New York

A History of England and the British Empire. By Walter Phelps Hall and Robert Greenhalgh Albion with the collaboration of Jennie Barnes Pope. Boston, Mass.: Ginn and Company, 1937. Pp. vi, 989. \$4.50.

This textbook for college students is fairly summarized in what the authors claim for it in their preface—"a clear and fresh interpretation of an old and honored theme." It is what we have now come to accept as conventional in its outline, in its division into chapters of more or less uniform length, and in its moderate emphasis upon the more recent part of

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its story. Yet it is a text which offers a rare combination of interesting narrative, striking use of illustrative detail, current historical interpretation and scholarly discernment. The story of the coming of the Normans (pp. 53-63), chosen as a random example, displays a fine sense of the dramatic excitement latent in history, and is told in a rich prose style. In fact, throughout the book the authors have achieved a standard of clear and studied prose. The authors show that they have culled contemporary opinion to enrich their text by quoting such morsels as O'Connor's stigmatization of England's rulers in the early nineteenth century as "big-bellied, little-brained, numskull aristocracy" (p. 632), and *The Times'* contemptuous assessment of the Anti-Corn Law Leaguers as "capering mercenaries who go frisking about the country; . . . authors of incendiary claptrap; . . . peripatetic orators puffing themselves into an easy popularity by second-hand arguments" (p. 638). These caustic and unillusioned comments of contemporaries go a long way in showing the student the human side of history. Finally, the chapter on the pre-war diplomacy of England, "The End of Splendid Isolation," demonstrates a good understanding of the best scholarly viewpoints on a fiercely contested subject. The authors' care in points of fact is seen in the distinction between the popular ap-

pellation 'Reform Bill' given to the reform of Parliament in 1832, and the 'act' which it really became on July 7, 1832 (p. 613).

In a text of such length and covering such a variety of subjects as has comprised the history of England, it is inevitable that the authors' zeal should at times flag, and their account descend to the ordinary. But Messrs. Hall and Albion deserve the minimum debit on this score, and unstinted credit for the high points in their treatment of English history: the brief and excellent biographical sketches scattered throughout the text; the splendid sections on military history, on literary thought, and the analytic but sympathetic survey of Victorian England.

J. A. ROBINSON

Collingswood, New Jersey

BOOK NOTES

In a brief and interesting fashion, the history, culture and habits of the Spanish people are presented in *Spain in Europe and America*, by Anne M. Peck and Edmond A. Meras. (New York and London: Harper and Brothers, 1937. Pp. viii, 312. Illustrated. \$1.00.) Like its predecessor, *France: Crossroads of Europe*, this volume carries out a recommendation of the Coleman Report by providing "some of the informing and illustrative material on

the foreign country and its civilization that is found only sparsely in the literary texts from foreign authors." A substantial part of the book treats the story of Spanish conquest and subsequent civilization in America. The volume will be valuable to all who are seeking fuller understanding of other lands and peoples.

An interesting book on the Spanish war has recently appeared: *Single to Spain*, by Keith Scott Watson. (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc. 1937. Pp. 264. \$2.00.) All wars yield personal accounts of observers and participants which help to satisfy the average reader's demand for something concrete, some view which is unhampered by the confusing jumble of political and military dispatches. Just what is going on in Spain? The author, a British journalist with leftist sympathies, went to Spain "single" via France, and in Barcelona joined the International Column to fight for the Loyalists. After a taste of gunfire, and having reached Madrid, he resigned and reverted to his profession of journalism. He saw something of the reality and horror of war which he has related graphically. He was dispassionate enough to criticize his fellow soldiers, their motives and their kind, and to see their shortcomings. He makes no appeals, no partisan orations, but presents a sympathetic view of civilian life in war-time, with its accompaniment of gaiety, humor, short acquaintances, impromptu loves, sacrifice and devotion. It is a fascinating tale, simply and frankly told, and does bring the reader closer to the intense reality of the civil war.

M. W. H.

The Constitution: The Middle Way, by W. S. Salisbury and R. E. Cushman (New York and Chicago: Newson and Company, 1937. Pp. 192. Illustrated. 80 cents) is a timely book. The tendency for educators today is to stress the social sciences and thus train our youth to assume early the obligations of citizenship. The study of civics, especially, tends to acquaint our pupils with the functions and purposes of our democratic government. Books upon books have been written about the government of our country, dry-as-dust and hard to digest. Teachers of social sciences have found that students show a decided antipathy to an understanding of our Constitution. Due to recent events it has become essential to understand the Constitution. The constitutionality of certain challenging problems has squarely thrown the needed understanding before the minds of citizens. This sesquicentennial period is especially an appropriate time for the appearance of an understandable book on the Constitution. This text consists of eleven short chapters. The language is simple and very readable. It is different from many constitutional books because

it is interesting, yet scholarly. The writers have given a fresh, dynamic and realistic treatment of this needed topic from the point of view of our times. Indeed, they have provided a clear, succinct, historical background necessary for an understanding of our present constitutional issues. They show no personal bias in presenting controversial constitutional questions and recent court decisions. The book is understandably written, with chapters well arranged in order of sequence. It should prove to be very instructive in giving a true picture of the functions and provisions of our Constitution to our citizens of today and tomorrow.

I. A. E.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Constitution of the United States. By Arnold Petersen. New York: Labor News Company. 10 cents.

Three essays on the founding of the American Republic.

Our Own Book Reviews. The Association for Arts in Childhood, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 20 cents.

One hundred and two children's books published in 1937 reviewed by boys and girls.

Personnel Administration in the Federal Government. By Lewis Meriam. The Brookings Institute, Washington, D.C. 50 cents.

An examination of some pending proposals.

Education and Revolution in Spain. By Jose Casstillejo. Oxford University Press, New York. 40 cents.

Three lectures delivered at the University of London Institute of Education.

Implications of Social-Economic Goals for Education. National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 25 cents.

The third in a series of studies by the N.E.A. Committee on Social-Economic Goals, the earlier ones being *The Social-Economic Goals of America* (1934) and *Creating Social Intelligence* (1935).

Fascism and Communism in South America. By S. Naft. Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 8 West Fortieth Street, New York, N.Y. 25 cents.

The extension of fascism and communism into South America.

Britain's Foreign Trade Policy. By J. F. Green. Foreign Policy Report for January 15, 1938. Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 8 West Fortieth Street, New York, N.Y. 25 cents.

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This is the first of a new series of World Affairs Pamphlets designed to analyze international problems affecting the United States. The European situation is analyzed and the issues stated. A map is included, showing: (1) the Rome-Berlin axis, (2) the London-Paris axis, and (3) the neutral nations of Europe.

How to Read a Newspaper. By Paul Hutchinson. *Social Action*, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York, N.Y. Issue of December 15, 1937. 10 cents.

A valuable guide for young people as well as for older people. Explains the art of reading a newspaper, "how to tell the good from the bad in the newspaper's product." And concludes with a page of "Additional Reading."

British Policy in the Mediterranean. No. 336 (January, 1938) of *International Conciliation*, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 W. 117 Street, New York, N.Y. 5 cents.

Presents a British naval officer's address in Paris last year shortly after a lecture there by a professor from the University of Rome on "Italian Interests and Policy in the Mediterranean." The pamphlet includes Secretary Hull's recent reply to a series of questions put to the President by a House resolution, "Questions on Our Policy in the China Conflict and Secretary of State Hull's Reply."

Vocabulary Booklet in the Social Studies for Junior and Senior High Schools. By John P. Dix. Published by the author, Northeast Junior High School, Kansas City, Missouri. 50 cents.

A pupil-teacher manual to be used as an aid to regular teaching units and activities.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Sod-House Frontier, 1854-1890. By Everett Dick. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937. Pp. xviii, 550. Illustrated. \$5.00.

A social history of the northern plains from the settlement of Kansas and Nebraska to the admission of the Dakotas.

Economics: An Introduction to Fundamental Problems. By Augusta H. Smith. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938. Pp. xvi, 544. Illustrated. \$1.68.

A revised edition of a popular textbook.

The Changing West and Other Essays. By Laurence M. Larson, Northfield, Minn.: Norwegian-American Historical Association, 1937. Pp. ix, 180. \$2.50.

Eight essays relating to the story of the Norwegians in the United States.

A History of the Business Man. By Miriam Beard. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938. Pp. vi, 779. \$5.00.

The story of the business man throughout the ages.

The Growth of the British Commonwealth. By P. H. and A. C. Kerr. London and New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1937. Pp. viii, 214. Illustrated. \$1.75.

A new and revised edition of a work originally published under the title, *The Growth of the British Empire*.

Banking, How It Serves Us. By Frank D. Graham and Charles H. Seaver. New York and Chicago: Newson and Company, 1937. Pp. 192. Illustrated. 80 cents.

A volume in the "Backgrounds for Citizenships" series.

The Abolition of Poverty. By J. and K. M. Ford. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. ix, 300. \$2.50.

A compact yet comprehensive treatment of all phases of the problem of poverty.

They Shall Not Want. By Maxine Davis. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. ix, 418. \$2.50.

A survey of unemployment relief.

The Exquisite Siren. By E. Irvine Haines. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1938. Pp. 444. \$2.50.

The romance of Peggy Shippen and Major John André.

A History of Latin America. By David R. Moore. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. xii, 826. \$4.00.

A history of the peoples, institutions, and culture of the countries of Latin America.

The Monroe Doctrine, 1867-1907. By Dexter Perkins. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1937. Pp. ix, 480. \$3.50.

The third volume on the Monroe Doctrine. The Albert Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History, under the auspices of the Walter Hines Page School of International Relations.